The Nation.

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The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN has been talking again, and says that "the Democratic position of friendliness to the free coinage of silver was largely assumed in order to cripple the Republican party by winning over the support of a dozen or so Republican Senators from the silver States." But why was the Republican position of friendliness to the silver lunatics assumed? Why did a party whose President vetoed the Allison Silver Bill, and whose Presidents and Secretaries of the Treasury year after year advocated the repeal of that measure, suddenly turn about in 1888, "condemn the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver" (these efforts being simply a continuance of those made under Hayes and Arthur), denounce Cleveland as a foe of silver, and promise that Harrison would be friendly to it?

The Hon. Stephen B. Elkins throws the responsibility for the present financial troubles on the people of the United States. We had almost said that he does this boldly, but a more careful reading of his interview in the *Tribune* shows that he does it rather inferentially and covertly. He says that the trouble is all due to "the Democratic success in November." This enables the casual reader to understand that the responsibility is due solely to the Democrats. If they had patriotically refrained from voting last November, all would have been well. Their untimely exercise of the right of suffrage has been the cause of all the subsequent misfortunes. As this kind of misfortune is liable to happen again, we feel impelled to ask the Hon. Stephen why he does not point out a remedy for an evil so flagitious and to which the country is so much exposed. Nothing short of a change in the Constitution will meet the case. This instrument provides for national elections once in four years. Of course the people are always liable to vote wrong, as they did last November. The only sure way to prevent this is to prevent them from voting at all—that is, if the right party is in power—the risks of a financial panic being so great. Even this remedy would not always be effectual. We had a panic in 1873, much worse than the present one, although there had been no change of Administration or of political control, President Grant having been elected in 1868 and again in 1872. Still, Mr. Elkins's remedy would be well worth trying. We call it his remedy because, although modesty prevents him from avowing it, it is evident that this is what he means.

Mr. Depew has contributed his views on the financial situation, and he takes issue sharply with his fellow-Republicans, "Bill" Chandler and "Steve" Elkins. It is true that he feels bound to ascribe some share in our present troubles to the success of the Democratic party in the last Presidential election, but he does not make this element at all prominent, and he furnishes abundant evidence, from his observations abroad as well as at home, that the chief difficulty is the distrust in our financial system caused by the Silver-Purchase Law. "If," he says, "Europe believed that we were to be, and remain, on a sound financial basis, our stocks and securities would be bought within a few weeks to such an extent that money would go begging for people to borrow it." He proceeds as follows:

> "The first and at present only condition which will release us from this thraldom of fear, and bring to us the confidence of our own people and of the world, is the repeal of the purchasing clause of the Sherman Act. By just the number of days that Congress fails to do this will the present distress increase. It will not make much difference what they do afterwards. If they do nothing, the country would not be harmed. As long as all believe that the indefinite continuance of this acquisition must be stopped or we shall get on the silver basis, the country has fixed its mind on repeal as the solvent of these troubles. The repeal once effected, confidence will be restored in our finances."

Mr. Depew is a Republican of at least equal eminence with either Senator Chandler or Mr. Elkins, while his views have this claim to consideration above theirs, that they emanate from a Doctor of Laws.

President Andrews writes a long letter to the *Sun* from Colorado Springs to inform "our friends at the East" of "the woe which has come to the people of the Rocky Mountain region in consequence of the fall in the gold price of silver." He describes the closing of various mines and the general depression, and is really gloomier about the outlook than the natives themselves. He says it is not true that the agricultural product of Colorado is as large as that of the silver mines, and says that, even if it were, the point of importance is that "agriculture cannot subsist except as the mining population provides it a market." So, too, with the production of coal, iron, and steel: it "is all but entirely dependent on the activity of the silver mines." This is in flat contradiction with what Senator Teller and Mr. Wolcott have said, and will not, we believe, ingratiate President Andrews with the distressed business men of Colorado. They will find it harder than ever to borrow the money they need if he is to go on sending such dismal tales and prophecies for Eastern bankers to peruse. In so far, therefore, Mr. Andrews's self-constituted championship of Colorado is calculated to do that State more harm than good.

The absurdity of the Colorado demands in behalf of silver-miners and mine-owners is forcibly shown by the Detroit *Tribune*, through a comparison of their industry with the iron-ore industry of Michigan. According to the census of 1890, the value of the iron-ore product of Michigan was $16,000,000, the number of employees engaged in the industry 13,120, and the total amount of wages paid $6,353,741. According to the same census, the value of the silver product of Colorado, at its market value, was $16,000,000, the number of employees 13,196, and the total of wages paid $10,114,682. In other words, the number of employees in the two industries and the value of their products were almost identical, the only difference being in the excessive and extravagant wages paid to the silver-miners. The parallel can be carried a step further, for the iron mines of Michigan are nearly all shut down on account of the depression in the price of their product, as is the case with the silver mines in Colorado, and there are nearly as many iron-miners out of employment in Michigan as there are silver-miners idle in Colorado. There is exactly as much reason why the iron-miners and owners of Michigan should insist upon the rest of the country buying their products at the old prices as there is for a similar stand on the part of the silver-men in Colorado.

The remark of the Governor of the German Bank in Berlin that the attempt to revive bimetallism would be "merely flogging a dead horse," hardly bears out President Andrews's view that the Brussels Conference had created profound respect in Europe for the bimetallic theory. But many things have happened since then. It was hard enough on the bimetallic horse to have Germany and Austria leave off feeding him, and he began to wheeze painfully; but when India came along and cut off half his rations at a stroke, he fell heavily on the boundless prairies of the West, like an abandoned mule in the wake of a caravan. Yet his poor worn-out carcass is not to be allowed to lie in peace, but is to suffer a pitiless cudgelling between now and the 7th of August. Gen. Warner is a master at flogging galled jades, and the swish of his rawhide will be heard in the great bimetallic convention to be held in Chicago. Colorado is to send a delegation of her most expert whippers, whose lash has been so successfully held over Congressmen and political conventions. But the horse is dead, and his remains ought to be spared these useless indignities.

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A despatch from San Francisco reports that a meeting has been held in that city at which speeches were made in favor of free coinage. Considering how easy it is to get a number of men together in favor of any proposition, it is not strange that such a meeting should have been held, but California is the last State in the Union which should look with any favor upon the prospect of a silver basis for our currency. Gold is used there almost exclusively as a circulating medium, and business has always been transacted on a gold basis. Even gamblers refuse to accept silver for chips. Every bank and every money-lender insists upon a specific promise that every debt shall be paid, both principal and interest, in gold coin, and the bonds issued by some corporations go a step further and specify that the coin shall be of the present standard of fineness. All public indebtedness, State, county, municipal, or local, must, by specific contract, be liquidated in gold coin. So unpopular is silver that at one time, about a dozen years ago, when a large proportion of the local taxes were paid in that coin, and county officials, school-teachers, and laborers on public works were compelled to accept a portion of their pay in that metal, they would promptly convert it into gold, even when they had to submit to a considerable discount.

It seems absurd to suppose that people who have enacted that the credit of the commonwealth shall be based on gold, and who have volunteered to pay all their debts in that coin, should really want to see a silver basis substituted, and there is no good reason to suppose that more than a very small minority do want it. Although both of the California Senators favored free coinage in 1890, yet when the contest came on for the vacancy caused by Mr. Hearst's death, Mr. Felton was chosen to the place, although he was an outspoken supporter of the gold basis and his opponents tried to arouse prejudice against him on that score. No reason appeared to suppose that Mr. Felton lost, or his free-coinage rivals gained, a single vote by reason of his attitude on this question. Like the election of Gen. Palmer, an opponent of free coinage, to the Senate from Illinois, and the reëlection of Congressman Catchings of Mississippi by an increased majority after his speeches against free coinage, this California case sustains the theory that the silver craze has never been half so violent among the people as the politicians have professed to believe.

The Australian ballot has had its first trial in Florida, the new system having been used in the municipal election at Jacksonville last week. The report is the familiar one, of unqualified satisfaction with its workings. "The election," says the local column of the *Times-Union*, "passed off very quietly and peacefully, the new law preventing any gathering at the polls and the pulling and hauling here and there of voters." On its editorial page the same journal says further: "On every hand and from all parties and factions alike are heard expressions of satisfaction at the working of the new ballot law—the Australian system. It worked like a charm." The Jacksonville trial of the law has been awaited with interest throughout Florida, the general opinion being that, if it proved a success, the next Legislature would apply the system to the whole State.

The Labor Commissioner of Iowa has been investigating the subject of teachers' salaries, and finds that they are extraordinarily small. Returns from about one-tenth of the whole number, which appear to be thoroughly representative, show an average salary of only $243.16 a year for women and $298.30 for men. This is much below the wages paid unskilled labor, and hundreds of teachers obtain their subsistence only through help from relatives and friends, their pay not being enough to secure food and clothing. The schools are already suffering by reason of the small salaries given teachers, since men and women of ability are more and more loath to enter so ill paid a profession. The old rule was to refuse a certificate to any applicant for a teacher's place who could *not correctly* answer at least 80 per cent. of the questions asked at the examination; but so low has the standard sunk that some county superintendents have been compelled to issue certificates to applicants who failed to answer correctly more than 55 per cent. of the questions, in order to get any teachers. Iowa has always been proud of her school system, and these revelations of its decadence are a disagreeable surprise.

The most flagrant case of the abuse of pensions yet brought to light is that of Justice Charles Dean Long of the Michigan Supreme Court. He has served upon the bench for a number of years, and receives for such service a salary of $7,000 a year, which he doubtless earns. Yet it appears that he has for years been receiving a pension of $72 per month for the loss of the left arm above the elbow and a gunshot wound of the left hip, resulting in alleged "total helplessness, requiring the regular aid and attendance of another person." He made his original application early in 1884, and was then granted $30 a month, since which time he has not been examined. Later in 1884 the allowance was increased to $50 a month. Soon after Tanner became Commissioner of Pensions in 1889, Judge Long went to Washington, and on the 6th of May had his pension rerated and $50 a month granted from June 4, 1874, and $72 a month from June 17, 1878. The case was taken up without legal application or declaration of any kind on May 6, 1889; examined on May 6, 1889; reviewed on May 6, 1889; medical action taken on May 6, 1889, and certificate issued on May 6, 1889. In other words, the whole thing was rushed through in one day, and the Judge took about $6,000 in arrears back to Michigan with him. On thinking it over, he seems to have been surprised at the moderation exhibited by Tanner and himself, and in June he applied for and, of course, secured a further rerating at $25 per month from June 24, 1862, to June 6, 1866, and $31.25 per month from June 4, 1872, to June 4, 1874, which netted the Judge about $1,000 more in back pay. There appears to be no question as to the truth of these statements, and the only defence advanced by the Judge's friends is that he was badly wounded, and to this day suffers seriously from his wounds, although such suffering does not interfere with the discharge of his well-paid duties on the bench.

The manner of Street Commissioner Brennan's removal from office—for that, of course, is what his "resignation" amounts to—is thoroughly characteristic of Tammany methods of government. That the man was unfit for the position, leaving out all questions of personal character and political affiliations, was morally proved by his extraordinary performances in the streets last winter, and was legally proved by the evidence laid before Mayor Gilroy by the City Club. But it would never do to turn out a faithful member of the organization just because it had been shown that he was an incompetent official and had violated the law; if such things were to be valid reasons for removal from office, what Tammany man would be safe? Oh, no, that is not the way to run the affairs of a great city, and so we were treated to the spectacle of Brennan's vindication and the Mayor's stern rebuke of the City Club for malicious interference, and the renewed and repeated demonstrations of Brennan's unfitness to do anything except to keep the streets and the force and himself in a perfect pickle, winding up with this belated and shamefaced confession that the City Club and all men with eyes in their heads were right, after all, and that Brennan was really intolerable. Of the shuffling about in the offices and the organization to get his successor, we need only say that it is a thoroughly *bouffe* performance. The last question in the Mayor's mind was, "How shall we get the streets cleaned?" and the first was, "How shall the 'plums' be redistributed in the Tammany baskets?" We say this without meaning to prejudge Brennan's successor, who must be estimated by his works.

A curious instance of the unforeseen results of well-meant legislative measures is noted by the *Financial Chronicle*. Un-

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der the law of the Dominion of Canada banks issuing their notes as money are required to limit the amount to the amount of their unimpaired capital, and the note-holders are given a first lien upon the assets of the banks. These notes, moreover, bear interest at 6 per cent. from the time of suspension of payment on the part of a bank until they are redeemed. It seems that the Commercial Bank of Winnipeg, which recently suspended, had a paid-up capital of half a million dollars, while in May last its outstanding notes amounted to only about half that sum. Assuming that its capital was unimpaired, it was thus entitled to issue a large amount of notes, and it is asserted that it paid off certain depositors by issuing these notes. The effect of such a proceeding would of course be to make these depositors preferred creditors, by changing their status from that of depositors to that of note-holders. These depositors, therefore, instead of having a fourth lien, would have a first, and would also have the same lien for their 6 per cent. interest. The incident deserves to be studied in view of the currency legislation which we must presently consider.

There is a certain grimness in the demand of the colliery proprietors in the Midland coal-fields of England that the miners' wages shall be reduced 25 per cent., coming as it does so soon after the demand of the miners upon Parliament that eight hours shall be the limit of a day's work. When a law of Parliament comes in conflict with a law of nature, the struggle may be severe, but it generally has but one issue. In view of the state of British trade and the prices obtained for iron, it seems inevitable that some reduction of wages should take place, although a reduction to the extent of one-fourth is certainly severe. If the proprietors of the mines cannot sell coal for enough to pay their rents and operating expenses, they must obviously either reduce their operating expenses or stop their operations. It is to be borne in mind, moreover, that between July, 1888, and August, 1890, the miners' wages were advanced four times, each time by 10 per cent. While wages have fallen since then in other mining regions, they have been maintained in the Midland districts, until the proprietors declare they cannot go on without having them reduced. As the Miners' Federation refuses to consider the proposition of the masters, the probability is that a strike involving several hundred thousand men will presently occur. This strike will probably bring about the result which the masters say is necessary. The wages of the men will cease altogether for a time, the production of coal will be greatly reduced, and after a time prices will rise. By that time the miners will be driven by want to listen to the masters' terms, or at least to some reduction of the present rate of wages, and the industry will be resumed. There may be some loss to the proprietors from the cessation of mining which will not be recouped to them by the advance in the price of coal when it comes. But the loss to the men from the total cessation of wages is not likely to be made up by any advance over the present rate, and it will not be offset by their eventually holding the present rate.

The July numbers of all four of the leading English political magazines contain articles on the controversy between France and Siam. All declare that France is unjustly despoiling a helpless State, a country where British interests are predominant, one whose independence or dependence on Great Britain is necessary to the security of the Empire. The ethics of the original boundary dispute are of little consequence. The French have no intention of letting themselves be confined to a narrow strip of seacoast; and if their historical claims to the left bank of the Mekong are flimsy enough, those of the Siamese are of no great value. England herself is the last nation that would heed any such claims on the part of an Asiatic State if they conflicted with her plans. The quarrel has lasted some time (complicated as usual by "incidents"), until, as happens in these cases, the strong civilized Power has lost patience and undertaken to settle matters in its own way. This is a very old and familiar story. The difficulty in the present instance lies in the jealousies and rival interests of Great Britain and France. Rightly or wrongly, the English cling to the belief that they must have no European neighbor to India, as long as they can possibly avoid it. When King Thebaw of Burmah prepared to accept a French protectorate, eight years ago, they instantly picked a quarrel with him, and invaded, conquered, and annexed his dominions before he could carry out his intention. Up till now, they have not minded much the colony of Indo-China, as it was some distance off, and its struggling existence made it seem harmless; but a territory stretching to the Mekong, an influence equalling their own at Bangkok, are a very different affair, a contingency to be prevented. On the other hand, the French, who have invariably found the English in the way of their expansion, are in a temper to resent promptly anything like interference. As the French have already practically seized the lower eastern bank of the Mekong, they will keep that much in any case. If they extend their occupation northward until they reach the Chinese frontier, thereby becoming immediate neighbors to Burmah, and obliterating a "buffer State," and still more if they open hostilities against the Siamese capital, it is difficult to foretell what may happen; but in any event Mr. Gladstone will hardly welcome this diversion from the business of his Home-Rule Bill.

Cuba stands related to Spain and Spanish politics very much as Ireland does to England and English politics. Cuban affairs take up a disproportionate amount of time in the Cortes; the Cuban Deputies rival the Irish members of Parliament in a fatal fluency of speech and readiness to denounce the Government on the slightest provocation; and a standing cause of perplexity and dismay to Spanish Cabinets has been the problem of governing Cuba in a way to maintain Spanish supremacy and to satisfy native sentiment at the same time. The Minister for the Colonies recently brought in a bill for the reorganization of the Cuban Government, which provides for a considerable degree of home rule and distinctly diminishes the despotic power of the Captain-General. Upon it public opinion in the island and in Spain has been divided, some maintaining that it was a legitimate concession to the desire for self-government, others contending that it was a first and dangerous step towards complete independence. Minister Maura has planted himself on the very modern ground for a Spaniard that it is impossible to govern a free people without having some way of consulting their wishes, and that the majority in Cuba should be allowed to decide on affairs of local government. On the whole, the preponderance of opinion in Cuba seems to favor the plan; and as the Minister has Sagasta's full assent and backing, it seems probable that the bill will be given a trial. It will be nearly as interesting and instructive to watch its operation in Cuba as it will be to observe the working of the new Irish Parliament in Dublin.

As the fuller accounts of the late rioting in Paris come to hand, they show conclusively that the students, who set the mischief on foot, had really no grievances to speak of, but went into the thing out of pure animal spirits. Some of the transparencies they carried in their processions were lettered in such whimsically desperate fashion as to show the essentially frolic nature of the affair. One of them, for example, bore the terrifying legend, "Fire, Blood, Death!" and it is easy to imagine what fun the young fellows thought it. But Paris is a dangerous city to try the experiment of a mock mob in, and the jocose students soon found themselves joined and outnumbered by the worst of the riff-raff, who were out for blood and fire and death in good earnest. By that time the students found out that the joke had ceased to be amusing, and then they disclaimed all connection with the rioters and came forward as volunteer policemen to help preserve order. But the mischief was done, and it took bayonets and cartridges to quell the riot which began in a bit of boyish folly. It is estimated that the total cost of the joke, what with damages to pay for and the expense of moving in large bodies of troops, will be hard on to a quarter of a million dollars.

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THE RULES OF CONGRESS.

THERE has been a good deal of talk about the need of adopting the parliamentary rules of the Reed Congress, if the Silver-Purchase Law is to be repealed at the extra session of Congress. This has come mostly from Republicans who are anxious to see the Democrats stultify themselves by adopting methods which they were bitterly denouncing three years ago. Then we had a hint a few days ago from Senator Jones of Nevada that the Senate would prove intractable, no matter what the House might do. He said to a reporter of a New York paper:

"I can, if I wish, tie up the Senate from now until the terms of its members expire. Of course there is likely to be a prolonged debate. Stewart, Teller, Wolcott, and the rest of us who demand free coinage, or something akin to it, will have a great deal to say. If we get tired talking, a motion to adjourn, to go into executive session, or indeed any motion at all, will continue the delay."

"But what if a closure is attempted?"

"There is no more chance of a closure than there was during the Federal Elections Bill fight in the Fifty-first Congress. The gold men must come to us. We shall not surrender to them by any means."

Now, as regards the rules of the House, we see no reason why those of the Fifty-second Congress are not perfectly adequate, provided the Committee on Rules uses its power. It is always in order for that Committee to call up a report fixing an order of business and the hour for taking a final vote on any pending bill. Under this provision of the rules filibustering is absolutely cut off. It was under such action of the Committee that Bland was able to bring the House to a vote on his free-coinage bill a year ago last March, when it was beaten. It is, no doubt, true that many flagrant instances of filibustering were exhibited at various times during the last Congress, but this was only because the Committee on Rules did not use their power to put a stop to it. Speaker Crisp had no authority, as Speaker Reed had, to rule out motions he did not like, or to count a quorum. There was no need then, and there is not now, to lodge such autocratic power in the hands of one man. As it was well explained in the debate on the rules of the Fifty-second Congress, what was proposed was "not to vest the power in the Speaker, one man; not to vest it in the filibuster, one man; not to vest it in the Committee on Rules, a set of men; but to vest it in the House, by authorizing the Committee on Rules to ask the House whether it is its desire to proceed with business, and its desire that the filibuster be stopped."

It is perfectly clear that under that rule the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law can pass the House in three days after its organization, if the House so desires. There is no occasion whatever for reverting to the Reed rules. All that is necessary, in the interest of either fairness to a minority or justice to a majority, is amply secured by the provision which enables the House to fix a time, after reasonable debate, for the taking of a final vote on the main question. This is all Mr. Gladstone is doing in the House of Commons. He has by no means taken a leaf out of Speaker Reed's manual. He has simply revived the practice, first introduced by the Tories in 1887, three years before the rise and fall of the Reed rules, under which he gets the House to vote that certain clauses of the Home-Rule Bill shall be brought to a vote at a certain day and hour. The rules of the Fifty-second Congress may need some strengthening in the way of making it incumbent upon the Committee on Rules to use their power more frequently and rigorously; but even if these remain unchanged, they are strong enough to put the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law through the House with all reasonable expedition. Even the Colorado dervishes recognized this in their address, when they admitted that their cause was lost in the "subservient House," and pinned all their hope upon the noble Senate.

The case is different and somewhat puzzling, it must be admitted, when we turn to the Senate. The "courtesy" of that body has thus far left it possible for it to affront common sense and all decency by unlimited talk against time, on occasion; and its adoption of the previous question, or any other device to shut off debate, does not now seem probable. The surest way to bring about the enactment of a stringent rule of that sort would be for Jones to fulfil his threat of standing up single-handed to defy the unanimous demand of the business of the country. If he is really anxious to preserve the dignity of the Senate, he had better forego his intention, or he and his kind will find themselves closured in short order. The more likely result will be a motion to sit in continuous session until Jones gets through. Unless he begins his speech much further back of the use of silver by the pre-Adamites than he customarily does, and marches down the ages much more slowly than is ordinary with him, even he would have told the world all he knows in the course of a day and night of steady talking. Then a vote could be taken, and Jones left to revise his remarks at his leisure.

All the signs now point to speedy and definite action by Congress. It is not possible that Jones or any other Senator can stand up in Washington to try to talk to death a measure favored by a great majority of the Senate and practically the whole country. If he tries it, some way will be found to put a hook in his jaw. But he will not try it. He and his companions in misery will be given a fair opportunity to air their woes, and unlimited "leave to print." Then there will be a vote and a great calm.

SENATOR ALLISON ON THE SILVER LAW.

THE Sioux City *Journal* publishes a letter from Senator Allison to Mr. J. Fred. Meyers on the present aspects of the silver question. The letter is important by reason of Mr. Allison's distinguished rank in the Republican party. Next to Mr. Sherman he holds the foremost place in the Senate, while in the matter of silver legislation he has been perhaps even more prominent than the Senator from Ohio. He was Chairman of the Committee on Finance when the Bland Free-Coinage Bill passed the House in 1878, Mr. Sherman being at that time Secretary of the Treasury. He caused the Bland Bill to be rejected by the Senate; the policy of buying silver and coining on Government account being substituted therefor.

This was nominally an act of statesmanship. If the Bland Bill had passed, the country would have gone to the silver standard at once. The bullion value of the silver dollar at that time was about eighty-nine cents. On that basis all debts would have been payable. Our gold would have been exported, and silver would have been imported to a corresponding amount. We should have had a panic at that time, and after a short experience of the inconveniences of silver we should have done what India has now done. We should have gone back to the gold basis, sending into retirement at the same time all the Congressmen who had voted for the Bland Bill. It might have been better for us on the whole to have gone through that experience and that valley of humiliation instead of wasting our substance all these years in the purchase of silver bullion and landing at last in the financial slough where we now find ourselves. On the other hand, by the substitution of the Allison Bill for the Bland Bill we escaped the stigma of virtual repudiation of 10 per cent. of public and private debts, and the confusion that would have ensued thereupon. The useless silver that we have accumulated since the Allison Bill was passed is perhaps not too great a price to pay for avoidance of this stain.

Mr. Allison, in his letter to Mr. Meyers, approaches the main subject, viz., the repeal of the Sherman Law, with very careful steps. He says in the first place that "there is a school of statesmen and publicists in our country who desire to force us to the single gold standard." He agrees with Mr. Meyers that "this ought not to be done," because there is not enough gold and not enough silver taken singly to transact the business of the world. At the same time he is opposed to the policy of the Government purchasing silver bullion and storing it unless this is done by international agreement. If there could be places of storage for both gold and silver bullion, and if international paper money could be issued upon such bullion, which paper could be used in settling international balances, that would be the kind of scheme that would reconcile the Senator from Iowa to the purchase

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of bullion which is to be stored but not coined. The gist of Mr. Allison's communication is found in the following sentence:

"I am willing to vote to stop the purchase of silver, leaving other questions to be settled later, on mature consideration and comparison of views, as the whole subject must be dealt with presently."

This is a sound position to take, and we do not see how Mr. Allison's correspondent, Meyers, or any other reasonable citizen of Iowa can object to it. Yet there will be some, of the unreasoning kind, who will say that the prospect of getting an international agreement for the purchase and storage of silver and gold bullion and the issue of international paper money is very slim, and that Mr. Allison, as a member of the recent Brussels Conference, ought to know this. For all such cavillers the Senator has a supply of alternative propositions. One is that we might change our ratio and make it 25 to 1, "and as silver bullion advances relatively, change the ratio." Another is that which Secretary Windom suggested, viz., "that the Government should receive bullion and issue paper money thereon, and then redeem these paper issues in silver bullion at the current price or in gold." This, however, the Senator does not favor. One thing he is sure of, and this will undoubtedly go far to silence any Republicans who might be disposed to cavil at Mr. Allison's positions. This is, "that the Democrats cannot formulate satisfactory legislation upon *any* of the great public questions now in the minds of the people." If we were inclined to be hypercritical, we might say, "Satisfactory to whom?" Satisfactory to Mr. Allison, or to his correspondent, or to the Republicans, or to the Democrats, or to the silver-miners? The Senator's letter ends in this way, rather abruptly as it seems to us, but we can assure him that if the Democrats formulate legislation for the repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Act, which Mr. Allison says he will vote for, it will be satisfactory to most people hereabouts.

FINANCIAL WHIMSEYS.

THE monetary system of the United States adopted in 1878 has worn itself out. This system went upon the theory that a cheap dollar is a good thing for the poor. Silver was the cheapest material that could be found of which to make dollars, after paper had been rejected, as it was in the elections which followed President Grant's veto of the Inflation Bill. So silver was taken up as the next worse thing, and has been coddled and made much of during the fifteen subsequent years. But it is now plain that silver has done no good to anybody. Most people are beginning to suspect that what the poor man really needs is the best kind of money that the world affords, and not the worst kind. What would be the situation of the poor man, regarded as a savings depositor, if all his money should be repayable in funds worth only fifty-five cents to the dollar? What would be his situation as a laborer for hire if his wages should be payable at the same rate? "He would strike for higher wages," would he? Yes, he would be compelled to do that, unless he was willing to lose half of the pay that he had received before. Then the question whether the strike would succeed would be open to dispute and would not be settled under three years at least. The employer would say that he could not raise the price of his goods so as to recoup himself, because his customers would not pay the advance; and so forth and so on. If the poor man were once brought into close contact and acquaintance with the 55-cent dollar that Congressman Bland and Congressman Bryan want to force upon him, he would make it very interesting for them. They would be "held up" at every turn of the road. It is really a mercy to them to prevent them from doing what they want to do and then falling into the hands of their victims.

As the 55-cent dollar recedes from view a lot of other oddities come into the field of vision. Our table is piled with them. One of them is the "goloid dollar." This is an old acquaintance, composed of say 55 cents' worth of silver and 45 cents' worth of gold melted together. Another is a new system of bank-note issues based upon silver and gold in equal parts. This might be called the goloid bank-note. Still another is a proposed issue of interconvertible bonds, which can be turned into currency whenever money is worth more than three per cent. interest, and the currency converted back into bonds whenever it is worth less than three per cent. This is likewise a venerable Joe Miller of finance. It had great popularity before the silver craze set in. The latter "knocked it out," and now it comes up smiling after a retirement of fifteen or eighteen years. All these snuffy old things proceed upon the theory that if the Government will only devise some kind of cheap dollar the people will be able to get it easily, but that each dollar will still buy 100 cents' worth of all the commodities needed to keep house with, just the same as a gold dollar. This expectation is as philosophical as it would be to suppose that a dozen gamblers shut up in a close room could increase their total winnings by using pasteboard chips instead of wooden ones.

We do not mean to deal harshly with people who, with honest purpose, bring forward what they consider to be remedies for the troubles into which silver legislation has brought us. Most of them have had silver dinned in their ears until they really think that, in order to have any money at all, it is necessary to dilute it and make it half good and half bad. A writer in the *Tribune* asks that paper whether it is not true that the $322,000,000 of silver certificates outstanding represent that number of coined silver dollars, being the same, to all intents and purposes, as though the coins were in circulation. The *Tribune* replies that these certificates derive their gold value from the credit of the Government and its promise to keep the two metals at par with each other; hence that the existence of a corresponding lot of silver coins in the Government vaults is of no consequence whatever, and that these silver coins might as well be sunk in the Atlantic Ocean. Very true and very well put, but the *Tribune* goes on to say that the only real silver dollars that circulate are the $57,000,000 that are moving about in the pockets of the people. Now this $57,000,000 is just as much "fiat" money as any part of the $322,000,000 which takes the form of silver certificates. If these dollars were circulating at their bullion value, every one of them would drop to 55 cents and probably lower, since the commercial world would expect them to come on the market as bullion before very long. This the *Tribune* has not quite made clear to its correspondent.

One of the oddities of the situation is that many people who hear and read about the "fifty-cent dollar," understanding that it means the silver dollar, refuse to accept these dollars at all. They will accept two half-dollars, or a silver certificate, without question, but a "cart-wheel dollar" or a "buzzard dollar" they will have nothing to do with. Of course these people are mistaken, but can we expect that all the people will understand these intricate matters after Congress has muddled them over and over again for thirty years so that only a minority of the people know what it is to have a sound monetary system? These people who refuse the cart-wheel dollar in trade are not more obfuscated than the silver editors who insist that they can be compelled to take them. "Are they not legal tender?" ask these sapient writers. "Why then should not everybody be compelled to take them?" This phraseology betrays ignorance of the fact that legal-tender laws operate only on past contracts. They have nothing to do with the present and the future. Therefore if a grocer declines to take silver dollars for tea and candles sold over his counter, or if the customer refuses to take them in the way of change, the fact that they are legal tender is of no account.

For the first time in a whole generation, there appears to be the sign of a dawning of common sense on the subject of money and finance. When the present Silver-Purchase Law is unconditionally repealed, daylight will appear.

THE END OF A SOCIALISTIC EXPERIMENT.

ONE of the earliest victories for human rights gained in the Revolutionary period in France was the suppression of the

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trade-corporations or guilds. Whatever may have been the origin of these associations or their earlier purposes, they had become monopolies of a very oppressive character, and their exclusive privileges were exercised in restraint of the rights of labor. For a century all such unions remained illegal in France, but as the prohibition of association in itself, where no illegal purpose exists, is a violation of natural liberty, no opposition was made to a law passed some ten years since authorizing the formation of trade-unions or syndicates, provided certain regulations were complied with.

This decade, however, has seen a recrudescence of socialistic ideas, taking its inspiration largely from the principle that the whole product of labor and capital is due to the laborer, all profit being nothing but robbery. Hence, a general sympathy for Labor as something downtrodden and oppressed became fashionable, and whoever assumed to speak for Labor was listened to with respectful attention. The more restless among the poor were of course ready to accept this sympathy and to demand this attention for their utterances. The formation of trade-unions gave them an opportunity to claim that these unions stood for Labor in general, and the spokesmen of these bodies at once became political powers. We have passed through an experience with these demagogues in this country which perhaps will not have to be repeated. In England they are now in the early stages of such an experience, but in France a picturesque culmination has just taken place.

Upon the theory that all those who work for wages constitute an oppressed class, it follows necessarily that the Government ought to do something for this class; and upon the theory that trade-unions represent this class, the Government ought to render its assistance to these unions. Accordingly, after much discussion, principally of a frothy character, the Government decided to establish a "Bourse du Travail," or gigantic labor exchange, at Paris, which should be the home of Labor, and furnish workmen a refuge where the tyranny of capital could not reach them. This large and magnificent building was, consistently with theory, turned over to the syndicates, who immediately demanded and presently obtained pecuniary subventions from the Government, which may be said to have provided them not only with lodging, but with board also. An important feature of this Bourse was an immense hall, where meetings in behalf of Labor could be held, and theories of reform and of government be discussed upon a grand scale. The rest of the building was principally given up to the offices of the syndicates, which soon came to be numbered by hundreds.

Undoubtedly a considerable legitimate business was transacted on this Bourse in bringing employers and workingmen together, but the leaders of the French syndicates were not content with this humble achievement. They insisted that, as they represented Labor by general consent, all laborers must submit to them, and their emissaries spread the doctrine that laborers who refused to join the unions ought not to be permitted to work: by such refusal they put themselves outside the social pale, as it were, and cast off their allegiance to Labor. Moreover, the leaders of the syndicates declined to comply with the provisions of the law by which their existence was authorized, finding that certain particulars required by the law as to the residence and previous history of members were inconvenient; and at the meetings in the great hall, sentiments were commonly expressed hostile to the Government and to the existing constitution of society. In fact, it was scarcely a year before the Government found that in organizing this labor exchange they had established a veritable hotbed of revolution.

The crisis was not long delayed. The recent riot in Paris was too much for the self-restraint of the syndicates. They heartily took part with the rioters, and denounced the police and the Government without stint. For the Government the situation was unpleasant if not serious. To be insulted and defied by Labor after it had been housed and warmed and fed was bad enough, but it would be worse if the Bourse should actually become the headquarters of a revolutionary committee. Accordingly the resolution was reached to compel the syndicates to comply with the law as to registration. The syndicates refused to obey, with loud protests against the persecution of a detestable Government. The Government then threatened them with expulsion from the Bourse if they did not submit; they replied that they would resist the Government with force. The last night of the struggle is described with much feeling by the reporters of the Paris press. The members of the syndicates found that large numbers of "laborers," not of their fraternities, but making the inconvenient claim to be equally entitled to occupy the Labor building, had volunteered to assist in the defence, and that it was impossible to decline their aid. These volunteers seem to have favored the view urged by one of the syndicate orators, that the true place for the audience to be was in the Latin Quarter assisting the mob. Against this another leader urged that their duty was to stay and defend the Bourse. Finally, after hours of wild uproar, it was proclaimed that the assembly was to separate into two parts, one to join the mob, the other to defend the Bourse. But though this assembly adjourned, another took its place, and pandemonium reigned during the rest of the night.

The following day a squadron of troops enclosed the Bourse du Travail, a detachment of police entered the building, and its defenders, protesting against the despotic act of the Government, accepted an invitation to withdraw. They are now frantically appealing to the trade-unionists to "avoid all complicity" with the Government, and to engage in a universal strike. But the Bourse du Travail is closed. The great hall is empty. There remains only, as an epitaph for this experiment in Socialism, the inscription chalked upon a blackboard in this hall:

L'Anarchie, c'est le salut!
Vive la Révolution!

THE FRENCH CHAMBER OF 1889.

PARIS, June 30, 1893.

A FEW weeks more, and the Chamber of 1889 will have ceased to exist. There is nothing in its character or work serving to distinguish it from its predecessors; but this very sameness and uniformity suggest certain reflections that may throw light upon some aspects of parliamentary life in France.

First of all, then, I may repeat that the Chamber of 1889 does not differ in composition from its predecessors; in other words, that the divers professions and trades of the country are represented in it in almost the same proportions. The computation that permits this statement to be made is a somewhat difficult one. It has nevertheless been attempted; and though, as may be easily understood, the results obtained cannot pretend to mathematical accuracy, the general conclusions one is able to draw are not without interest. For instance, it is remarked that of the three chief categories under which the labor of the country may be comprised—to wit, agriculture, industry, and commerce—there are very few representatives in Parliament. It may be replied, "Oh, that is easily accounted for. A tradesman or a merchant cannot find much time to give to any other interests than those strictly relating to his business." And yet if we compare the Chamber of Deputies with the English House of Commons in this respect, we find that in the latter the representatives of the agricultural and commercial interests occupy the first place as regards numbers. With us the majority of Deputies are either ex-functionaries of the State, who have left the public service to enter into politics, or else people belonging to the liberal professions. These latter are for the most part either country doctors or lawyers, whose calling and continual contact with the electors have permitted them to obtain a sort of popularity that at length arouses an ambition in them to offer themselves as Parliamentary candidates. One more class must be added to the former, a class which perhaps predominates over every other, that of barristers.

The preponderance of these elements in the Chamber necessarily introduces some inconveniences so far as concerns the carrying on of Parliamentary work. Thus, to begin with a small item, the barristers are naturally skilled in public speaking; and expressing themselves as they do with such facility, they never lose an opportunity of making a speech. They thus lengthen out useless discussions, and often excite debates of a frivolous character, the more so as they have a strong personal interest in putting themselves forward. The fact is that these people—doctors, barristers, and functionaries—are nearly all of them similarly situated. The posts they held were not very brilliant, and the future apparently in store

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for them was not in accord with their ambition. Politics for them is the road leading to the honors they covet. And so they seek to bring themselves to the front by all the means in their power: make motions in the Chamber that are utterly devoid of utility, and are always ready with an interpellation from no other motive than to make a stir in connection with their name, and to acquire sufficient reputation in the country to assure their reëlection. Not that they really care about being Deputy. It is only ambition that prompts them; besides which, in many cases, the Deputies are men of slender fortune, and on the money score cannot be indifferent to the advantages of the position. As a matter of fact, 9,000 francs per year as salary, and a free pass on the railways, not to speak of other minor privileges, are not things to be despised. We may even go further, and say that though the cases are rare, yet there have been Deputies who, owing to the prestige of their parliamentary mandate, have increased their influence in the financial world, and have thus been enabled to make good strokes of business and signally to improve their pecuniary circumstances.

Another point of resemblance between the Chamber of 1889 and its predecessors consists in the large number of bills that it leaves undealt with after having taken them up. It need hardly be explained here that all the inquiries and drafting of bills carried out by the committees and sub-committees of one Chamber, if they have not been converted into acts passed by Parliament before the dissolution, become null and void, and have to be gone through afresh in case of being taken up by the Chamber that succeeds. A great loss of time and work is caused by this state of things, and to remedy it a motion was submitted to the Chamber a few days ago, by which it was proposed to substitute in place of the present general-election system a partial renewal similar to the one used in elections to the Senate. It was proposed that one-half of the members should be reëlected every two or three years, so that Parliament would in a way become permanent, and the inconvenience just pointed out would necessarily disappear. The motion was, however, rejected by a considerable majority, and we need not linger over a discussion of it.

Still another feature common to this and to preceding Legislatures is that it is dying a natural death. And yet if any Chamber deserved to be dissolved before its term, it is surely the present one. It has been said that, when elected, it was charged to deal with two things—first, to combat Boulangism; and, secondly, to modify the tariff in a protectionist direction. When these two missions were accomplished—when Boulangism was defunct and the commercial treaties formerly existing were replaced by the double-tariff system—the Chamber, it was said, was at a loss what to do. There was at that time some talk of a dissolution. It may be remembered that in a previous letter I referred to this eventuality, and said that, for rather more than a year before the Loubet Cabinet came into power, dissolution had been a possible occurrence. The Government, however, took no action in the matter—a course which it must since have regretted, for, as if to prove that the current opinion was correct, since that time the Chamber has presented the spectacle of a body without real coherence in its parts. The list of important measures and useful motions dealt with in Parliament since that date is not a very long one. To counterbalance it we have the ridiculous conduct of the Chamber in the Panama affair, and the grotesque incidents provoked quite recently by an honorable Deputy who undertook to support his charges with documents pretended to have been stolen from the English Embassy.

Contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, which seeks to counterbalance the Chamber by other powers, the Deputies are gradually becoming the preponderating element in our political system. One can scarcely lay too much emphasis on this tendency, since it appears destined sooner or later to assume prime importance in politics. It is, moreover, patent at the present time that any Government must hesitate to use the powers conferred upon it by the Constitution against the Chamber of Deputies, inasmuch as, according to the principles avowed by one section of the Republican party, such an act would seem to be directed against the accepted doctrine of the national sovereignty; and, being as such condemned by many as a kind of *coup d'état*, it would be used in the country against those who had had recourse to it. To overcome the deterioration in the character of the Deputies themselves, some reformers would abandon the payment of members of Parliament. Such a proceeding would certainly suffice to modify the composition of Parliament in a very marked manner. But what Chamber would consent to pass such a measure, which, indeed, would be in open contradiction of the ideas current to-day, which even admit the remuneration of town councillors? A measure of this kind would be declared anti-democratic, on the ground that a large number of citizens would necessarily be shut out of the Chamber. Not only so, but if the payment of members were abandoned, this reform would not go very far towards remedying the defects of our present arrangement. It would still be necessary to create political ambition in the minds of a number of people who for the moment possess no such ambition; and it would still be necessary to persuade the electors to let themselves be deceived by certain appearances—which would be less easy than it is now—and to succeed in making elections the exact contrary of what they are now. In a word, it would be necessary to modify all the political customs of the country, and even in some respects to modify the character of the nation.

S.

A PROPOSED REFORM IN PARIS.

LONDON, July 7, 1893.

PARISIANS are so prone to herald their innovations with noise and disorder that changes wrought in silence are apt to pass unnoted. Were one asked for this summer's chief event in artistic Paris, the answer to spring to one's lips would be, the riots over the ball of the Quart'z' Arts and the action of the authorities in its regard. An affair that resulted in an old-fashioned mob, in barricades and cavalry charges, in besieged Boulevards, would seem to lead in importance. And yet to all save students a movement set on foot shortly before the revolt against Lozé and the death of Nuger promises far more serious consequences, though hitherto it has made small stir among artists. This movement threatens, not the Prefect of Police, but the foreigners in Paris, and it has been formally inaugurated by the Société Libre des Artistes Français. Their resolution, that henceforth, at the Champs-Élysées, medals ought not to be bestowed upon alien exhibitors, is the "little rift": if it widen, it will eventually rob Paris of that fine tolerance which has made her the capital of the world of art.

The step taken by the Society deserves more attention than it has received. It is safe to say that in the end, if such a resolution were adopted, it would prove more disastrous to French artists than to the foreigner against whom they would protest. But the causes leading to it are worth considering. I have already had occasion, in writing of the two Salons, to point out that the principal triumphs—with few exceptions—in both, this year, must be attributed to the English and Americans, the Scandinavians and Germans or Belgians exhibiting; a fact scarcely pleasant to the Frenchman who has been so generous in his hospitality. It would not be natural if he enjoyed seeing himself ousted from the position of honor which he has held since the great achievements of the men of 1830. But perhaps he feels still more keenly the admirable impartiality of the Government, which, in making its annual purchases, has recognized no distinction of nationality where merit is concerned, and consequently, of late, has been buying the canvases of foreigners in increasing numbers. Times for artists, the world over, are hard just now, and here the Frenchman fears loss not only of fame, but of fortune for himself. It is not so much what the Government pays—it pays very little; it is the great advertisement (and it is an advertisement in the best sense of the term) secured by having one's picture hung in the Luxembourg, or even in one of the provincial museums.

Perhaps this danger would not have been so fully realized but for the recent rearrangement of the Luxembourg galleries. The present grouping of the foreign work emphasizes its importance in the collection. It is true, it occupies merely one of the smaller rooms; but it is equally true that this small room is by far the most conspicuous and interesting of all. There are fine paintings scattered through the others (and I am not touching now on sculpture, since, so far, French sculptors have scarce been subjected to the same severe competition from without): nothing can lessen the distinction of the Manet; the fine Aman-Jean relieves the mediocrity of the most commonplace section; now that it can be seen from across a wide gallery, Puvis de Chavannes's "Pauvre Pêcheur," with the marvellous distance stretching away behind the simple figure, and the still more marvellous atmosphere that fills the landscape, can be really seen as it never was when it hung on the walls of one of the narrower apartments; Pointelin's "Soir de Septembre" delights, as do his contributions to every Salon; and so, with many other pictures which are now overshadowed by the preponderance of poor work, but which, if placed in one room, would make a striking display. For it is the collecting together of the foreign examples which strengthens their force. Here, to begin with, one finds the masterpiece of the whole collection, Mr. Whistler's "Portrait of his Mother," occupying, as it should, a centre of honor. However, one almost wishes it back in its old position, near the Manet, where it hung a little lower on the wall, and was in a better light, and altogether was seen to greater advantage. But it would take a bad light, indeed, to disguise utterly its incomparable beauty. Opposite now is Mr. Sargent's "Carmencita," original, daring, clever, and gaining, not losing, by time. Next to the Whistler—truly a test—is Mr. McLure Hamilton's portrait of Mr. Gladstone. It is impossible in passing not to mention, by way of reminder, that these three, the most distinguished canvases in the room, are the work of Americans. There are also the "Retour" of Mr. Mosler—I believe the first picture by an American bought for the collection—and the "Bénédi-

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cité" of Mr. Walter Gay, and the paintings of Marie Bashkirtseff (but these are typical of industry and notoriety rather than of genius). In one corner, a drawing by Burne-Jones hangs under Carlos Schwabe's design for the cover of the last edition of Zola's "Rêve." Mesdag, Zorn, and Edelfelt are represented, and so also are De Nittis, who belongs to a past tradition, and Alfred Stevens, who still seems modern even in the Champ-de-Mars. The general effect of this little collection is that which is always desirable, but seldom attainable, in a picture exhibition: there is hardly a painting which fails to interest. Naturally, therefore, its strength and excellence seem greater, it may be, than they really are, and every time the Frenchman goes to the Luxembourg he is confronted with this eloquent proof of the foreigner's success and influence.

It is trying, I admit. But it will profit him little if the foreigner be banished—for banishment practically it must prove if the latter be declared ineligible for competitions and honors at the Salon. It is their international character which has made the Salons so important. Because Paris is the picture market, not of France alone, but of the whole world, have buyers and patrons and dealers swarmed thither for many years. The breadth which has prevailed in the schools has been their chief virtue. England has demonstrated what danger there is in an undue pride in national art. If France in the present panic decide to follow her example and turn the back upon the stranger at her own gate, it must result in the consecration of the French artist to the petty and the mediocre. His fellow-artists will not be slow to seek new headquarters elsewhere. But the authorities at the Champs-Élysées may have the sense to foresee the evil, and so avoid it. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE CLASSICS AT WILLIAM AND MARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with interest the note of Mr. William Garrett Brown published in your issue of June 22, 1893, concerning the admission of John Dawson of Virginia to Harvard College in May, 1780. I have tried for some time to find out something about his parentage, and Mr. Brown may be able to add to our information about him by an examination of the Harvard matriculation book. He was called "Beau Dawson," and was eminently popular in society and politics. Two Dawsons—William and Thomas—were presidents of William and Mary, but I am not satisfied that Hon. John Dawson was a son of either. Neither Greek nor Latin was taught at William and Mary in 1780. The College was reorganized in 1779 under the lead of Mr. Jefferson, and the two chairs of Divinity and that of "Humanity," in which the classics had been taught, were abolished. The great reformer, whose hand is seen in all departments of thought, substituted for the Divinity Schools the Schools of Law and Medicine, and for the School of "Humanity" the School of *Modern Languages*. He made his old preceptor, Chancellor Wythe, first Professor of Law; Dr. James McClurg, who represented Virginia in the Convention of 1787, Professor of Medicine; and an Italian gentlemen, Charles Bellini, Professor of Modern Languages.

I think that these chairs were the first of their kind in America. Up to 1783 there were only three chairs of regular professorships at Harvard. The professorship of Medicine was established in 1783 and that of Law in 1815. Mr. Jefferson's chair of Modern Languages, substituted for the Ancient Languages, at William and Mary, was, like his whole life, a revolt against the old order of things. But in 1794 the chair of Humanity was restored, and the study of Latin and Greek resumed, under John Bracken. The modern languages were found to be an excellent addition to the course of study, but it was also found that their study should not cause the study of the classics to be dispensed with. Jefferson had to admit that "while every other article could be as well acquired at William and Mary as at any place in Europe," the habit of speaking the modern languages could not be so well acquired.

Lyon G. Tyler.

College of William and Mary,
Williamsburg, Va., July 17, 1893.

PROF. SIEMERING'S WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1459 of your esteemed journal, a correspondent, writing under the signature "Help," from Philadelphia, June 6, enters his protest against what he calls "ruinous juxtaposition" to the venerable State-house of that city of a monument to be erected to the memory of Washington in the rear of said building. I do not purpose to engage in the controversy over that local question. In his eagerness, however, to save what he considers a sacred spot from encroachment, "Help" inflicts a great injury on the eminent artist who has created the monument in question, Rudolf Siemering of Berlin. Having been chosen by the Society of the Cincinnati of Pennsylvania for their great project upon the merits of his model, which was exhibited at Philadelphia in 1881, in competition with various designs from notable sculptors of different nationalities, Siemering has been at work on his task ever since, and bestowed upon it the fulness of his genius. When completed and shown here at last year's art exhibition, it was considered by the most competent judges as a work of art which, in sublimity of conception, originality of composition, and perfection in all parts, is to be ranked among the *chefs-d'œuvre* of all time. With the universal admiration, regrets were mingled that such a work should go abroad; but with its thoroughly American features it belongs to your nation, and Germans will be proud and gratified that it has been given to one of their kin thus to embody the glories of a kindred people.

To denounce such an achievement, as "Help" does, as "an obvious plagiarism of the design of the well-known figure of the great Frederick at Berlin," can be explained only by sheer ignorance of the subject on which he writes, basing his judgment avowedly on "newspaper cuts" only, and misled by some inconsiderate comparison as to the well-known monument of Rauch. There is nothing in the Washington monument that resembles it save the cocked hat worn by Washington and Frederick in the same way, after the fashion of their time. Of all this "Help" might have satisfied himself by taking a peep at the shop where the parts of the monument are stored in Philadelphia, before defaming a well-known artist whose name he suppresses. It must be mortifying in the extreme for a man of the standing of Prof. Siemering to see the work to which he has given his whole soul and devoted the prime of his life, greeted in such a manner, by being drawn into a local quarrel to which he is entirely foreign, having had in view rather a site in Fairmount Park for the sake of the wider range which a work of such calibre would seem to call for. This is the more to be regretted when ignorance, speaking of it as an incongruous pile to be set up, finds utterance in an organ of the tone which has ever characterized the *Nation*, in "juxtaposition" to certain performances of local Philadelphia sheets which appeal to the native spirit of the country for resistance to the "threatened Prussian invasion."

Very respectfully,

Dr. Johannes Rösing.

Berlin, July 10, 1893.

ECONOMIC IDEAS IN NEBRASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having been compelled on account of ill-health to spend the past nine months here, and getting a surfeit of cheap-money gabble, I subscribed for my old adviser, the *Nation*. Thus fortified, I started out in a little missionary work, and have been successful in disabusing some minds of their ideas on money.

My object in writing you is merely to testify to the accuracy of your knowledge of the situation. Being sadly in need of capital, which could be used to great advantage to all concerned, and being compelled to pay a high rate of interest on what is obtained, the people here are willing to swallow anything that promises more money. Their willingness to be duped by mine-owners is exceeded only by the density of their ignorance in matters of finance. Some think that a circulation of $50 per capita means that they would have that $50.

During the past winter the Legislature passed a freight bill which had the effect of raising the freight on corn for through shipment. While complaining bitterly of the way they are robbed by railroads, not one in ten can tell the rate on grain to Chicago, or what the relation between prices there and here should be. Having bought 600 bushels of corn eight miles from the railroad, I must pay 4 cents per bushel to have it hauled those eight miles, while it costs only 16 cents to forward it to Chicago. I obtain not a little amusement in picturing the profits of a railroad for those eight miles, but so far have been unable to find any one who wishes to invest.

I am yours respectfully, K.

Nebraska, July 18, 1893.

Notes.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. have nearly ready the twenty-second volume of their authorized Brantwood edition of Ruskin's writings, being 'The Elements of Drawing, in Three Letters to Beginners,' with the usual introduction by Prof. Norton.

Harper & Bros. have gathered 'Other Essays from the Easy Chair' as a second volume of selections from the late George William Curtis's contributions to their Magazine.

'Stories of the South' is the latest volume in the dainty series called "Stories from *Scribner*," and has its tiny measure filled out by Thomas Nelson Page, Harrison Robertson, Joel Chandler Harris, and Rebecca Harding Davis.

The International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.) is continued with four volumes, divided between 'Old Mortality' and 'Heart of Midlothian.' The illustrations to the latter seem to us the best yet

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issued in the present series. The single-volume Dryburgh Edition, on the other hand (Macmillan), adds 'Ivanhoe' to its eight predecessors, with woodcuts after designs by Gordon Browne.

The Herbarium of Harvard University has issued a pocket 'List of the Plants contained in the Sixth Edition of Gray's Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States,' embracing the territory east of the one hundredth meridian and north of North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas. Mr. John A. Allen is the compiler, his aim having been to facilitate herbarium exchanges and furnish a useful adjunct to the 'Manual.' An appendix of eight pages contains some corrections of the parent work.

Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, have supplemented their general Guide to the World's Fair with 'A Week at the Fair,' in which, after some general information about Chicago and access to the Fair, the sight-seeing is apportioned among six secular days, with a chapter for each. The design is a good one. The guide is illustrated, and well equipped with diagrams. Laird & Lee, Chicago, send us a new edition of 'Hill's Guide to Chicago and the World's Fair,' which we have already characterized as particularly useful for the city. Its finding-list of articles on exhibition at the Fair will also be appreciated.

'Salem at the World's Columbian Exposition' is a catalogue issued by the Essex Institute, and no one can deny that the old Massachusetts city acquits itself handsomely in the great show. Two plates of old furniture adorn the pamphlet.

The July number of the *Library Journal* contains abstracts of the papers read at the World's Fair Congress and Chicago Conference of Librarians on July 13–22. In a paper read by Mr. G. Iles of this city, it is stated that next year there will be begun here a weekly index to periodicals, with this peculiarity, that each succeeding issue will repeat the titles already published. The Mergenthaler machine, or one operated on the same principle of casting type in solid lines of metal, makes this repetition with fresh alphabetization easy.

Apropos of this innovation, the Boston Public Library will hereafter publish weekly an alphabetical list of newly acquired books "printed from the type set up for new cards for the card-catalogue, so that the titles in the weekly list will be similar in all respects to those in the card-catalogue." This scheme involves the abandonment of the practice of printing in the Library's Quarterly Bulletin a *classified* list of new books. The space thus gained will be used in printing subject lists, special bibliographies, and reprints or facsimiles of original documents, prints, and manuscripts in the Library. The April number, for example, opens with a third and enlarged edition of its Chronological Index to Historical Fiction (including prose fiction, plays, and poems); the first instalment being of England to the reign of Victoria. Then follows a conspectus of works in the Library relating to the telegraph and telephone; a list of Transactions and like serial publications currently taken in the Library—a vast number; a list of books pertaining to Hawaii; and finally a facsimile of the earliest known chart of Boston harbor, prepared by the order of Gov. Andros. The alphabetical list of accessions may be subscribed for at $1.50 a year; the Bulletin at $1.00.

'Nicaragua,' by Courtenay de Kalb, is the title of a reprint from the Bulletin of the American Geographical Society, which proves to be a short but painstaking study of the Mosquito Coast. The political status of this former home of buccaneers was determined by the Managua treaty, as explained by an award of the Austrian Emperor in 1881. To almost all intents and purposes, the region governs itself, but it is subject to Nicaragua, while Great Britain, which formerly exercised a protectorate over it, retains a dangerous right to interfere in case of an infraction of the treaty. The arrangement works badly and produces trouble and confusion. The insignificance of the territory, with its 7,500 Indian, negro, and white inhabitants, has enabled it to get along tolerably so far; but the Nicaragua Canal would greatly increase its importance, and in time compel some sort of a new settlement, which may not be reached without serious difficulty. The country seems to be very healthy for the tropics, and its capital and chief seaport, Bluefields, has a future as the starting point of a railroad to rich lands in the interior. Mr. DeKalb's study, while mainly historical, derives interest from his observations of country and peoples on the spot. It may be had, for fifty cents, of the author, at Irvington-on-Hudson, N. Y.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for July 10 Gen. Greely enumerates the hundred most populous cities of the world in accordance with the latest censuses, which are dated in each case. Canton alone is estimated. More than half (52) are populated by English-speaking races or controlled by them; and seventeen of these are in the United States, which has twenty-eight cities whose population exceeds 100,000.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an account of the proceedings of the Anglo-Portuguese Delimitation Commission in East Africa. This is followed by an interesting sketch of the Campas, probably the best representatives of the uncivilized Indians of Peru, by D. R. Urquhart, who had many opportunities of observing them during a surveying expedition to the upper tributaries of the Amazon. They have no elected chief, and "probably have not had" since Pizarro slew Atahualpa. Their veneration for the last of the Incas is shown also in the hereditary and inextinguishable hatred for the descendants of his murderers, as well as by the fact that their women still wear a black strip round the dress as mourning for their great chief. Crime is rare among them, and they are truthful, honest, and brave. Their religion is a strange mixture of Christianity, idolatry, and sun-worship. Added to this is a belief in witchcraft, which, unless eradicated, must lead to the extinction of the race. Nearly every death is ascribed to some witch, generally a woman, who is immediately strangled or beheaded. Apparently their only weapon is the bow and arrow; the latter being of cane, excepting the barbed point, which is formed of "a black, exceedingly hard wood, found as a sort of crust growing inward on a species of palm." Around the arrow "feathers are arranged in a spiral so as to give the missile a rotary motion in flight." A brief historical sketch of the progress in the teaching of geography in Germany may also be mentioned.

Part 2 of vol. xix. of the Annals of the Harvard College Observatory contains two memoirs, one, by Prof. Arthur Searle, upon the Zodiacal Light, and the other, by the Director, Prof. E. C. Pickering, upon the Atmospheric Absorption of Photographing Rays. Photographic plates are affected most by a bluer part of the spectrum than that which most affects the human eye, and this bluer part is much more absorbed by the atmosphere, so that the correction to the brightness of a star on account of its zenith distance is much greater when the photographic method of observation is used than under direct vision. The form and value of the correction are in this paper worked out elegantly and satisfactorily, and the photographic magnitudes of nearly 900 stars between declinations 55° and 65° are incidentally determined. Photographically, the blue stars are shown as brighter and the red stars as fainter than to the eye, the discrepancy often amounting to a whole magnitude. The effect of the atmosphere is to lower the photographic brightness of an average star in the zenith by 0.44 of a magnitude. This effect is diminished with a high barometer, and is slightly increased in warm and moist weather. It is decidedly greater in the autumn than in the spring of the year.

We have received the first volume of the *Physical Review*, "a journal of experimental and theoretical physics," conducted by Edward L. Nichols and Ernest Merritt, and published for Cornell University by Macmillan. "The Transmission Spectra of Certain Substances in the Infra-red," by Ernest F. Nichols; "The Infra-red Spectra of the Alkalies," by Benj. W. Snow; "Relation between the Lengths of the Yard and the Metre," by William A. Rogers; "The Critical Current Density for Copper Deposition," by Samuel Sheldon and G. M. Downing; and "A Geometrical Proof of the Three-Ammeter Method of Measuring Power," by Frederic Bedell and Albert C. Crehore, are the leading papers. There are notes and reviews of new books. The *Review* is beautifully printed.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, Mass., is holding its sixth summer session, with laboratory facilities for both investigation and instruction in animal morphology, physiology, and botany, under the general direction of Prof. C. O. Whitman of the University of Chicago, seconded by a corps of twelve assistants. There are at present in attendance 112 students and investigators, representing Chicago, Columbia, Yale, Princeton, Harvard, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Williams, Brown, Bowdoin, Cincinnati, the Northwestern University, Bryn Mawr, Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, the Missouri Botanical Gardens, and many of the smaller colleges.

Under the title 'Special Assessments,' Mr. Victor Rosewater contributes to the Columbia College Economic Series an exhaustive review of the practice and principles of our States in raising funds for improvements that are to such an extent local as not to be properly chargeable on the whole community. The "betterment" principle, Mr. Rosewater thinks, was introduced into the law of New York from the act of Parliament passed to regulate the rebuilding of London after the great fire of 1666, and it is from the law of New York chiefly that the system has been developed in this country.

Dentu's publishing-house has issued 'Mes Campagnes,' by Léon Chotteau, a gentleman who will be remembered by New York and Boston merchants and business men as an earnest advocate of reciprocity between the United States and France. The book is simply an account of the speeches delivered by M. Chotteau in both America and France on this one subject. He has not yet succeeded in bringing about reciprocity, but he is not discouraged, and this account of his campaigns is sure to interest those who are opposed to his views as well as those who are in sympathy with him.

One of the best works on French versification which have appeared of late is Clair Tisseur's

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'Modestes Observations sur l'art de versifier.' M. Tisseur belongs to a Lyonnese family of poets and philosophers, the best known of whom, perhaps, is Jean, the poet. M. Clair Tisseur proposes certain reforms in versification, and, in order to justify his proposals, examines French verse, in its different forms and in successive epochs, with a clearness and an absence of technical phraseology which lend an added charm to his book. He is a very sprightly writer, and his erudition is never allowed to become heavy; and although such a subject as his is very apt to be treated in dull and most unpoetic fashion, M. Tisseur has made his valuable work an exceedingly bright and interesting one. As he brings down his subject to the most modern verse, he will frequently be referred to by students of prosody. We have received also 'Studies in French Versification,' by Prof. A. R. Hohlfeldt of Vanderbilt University. They bear upon the treatment of the Alexandrine verse by Racine and Hugo, and may be consulted profitably on this point.

That delightful critic, Émile Montégut, has added another volume to his work. This latest one, published by Hachette, is entitled 'Esquisses Littéraires,' and, while it does not deal with any of the greater writers, contains enjoyable articles on P. J. Stahl, Gustave Planche, Mme. de Gasparin, and a few others. These minor writers are as carefully examined and appreciated as any of the greater ones of whom M. Montégut had previously given us his opinion.

M. Gustave Larroumet, whose studies in dramatic history and criticism we noticed recently, has now issued a volume of 'Études de littérature et d'art' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.). Some of these studies are especially worthy of attention: that on "Somaize et la Société précieuse" contains several new points, and sweeps away some existing mistakes; that on "Le XVIIIe Siècle et la critique contemporaine" places that much discussed age in a truer light, and, when read in connection with the excellent study on "Les Origines françaises du Romantisme," gives a much truer view of the epoch of Voltaire and Rousseau than is generally taken. M. Larroumet also enters the lists on behalf of Scribe, who is a good deal talked and written about now, in a vigorous study which brings out the good points of the celebrated dramatist.

—The announcement of honors at the University of Chicago after the initial year may possibly shed light on the reluctance of our older universities to throw open their emoluments and rewards on equal terms to men and women. Eleven of the general fellowships have been won by women, although they numbered less than one-third of the applicants for these desirable appointments. The new fellows are graduates of Bryn Mawr College, University of Cincinnati, Cornell University, University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, Syracuse University, Vassar College (two students), Wellesley College, University of Wisconsin, and Western Reserve University. Of three new "special" fellowships, two will be held by women—that in history by a graduate of Vassar, and one in English by a Ph.M. of the University of Chicago. The relative proportion of male and female students did not justify expectation for more than a modest showing of women in the honor list, but their success all along the line buttresses two claims made by the advocates of university education for women, namely, women's mental capacity, and the high grade of work *now* being done by them at various educational centres. The thirteen fellowships just assigned to women at the University of Chicago represent preliminary college work broad enough to include special training in mathematics, Greek, Latin, Romance languages and literature, English, political science, history, physiology, and biology. Discussion of the question whether or no there is any significance in the fact that eight of these winners have been trained at coeducational institutions, we leave to those who delight in social dialectics.

—The "Old Two-seed-in-the-Spirit-Predestinarian Baptists" form a cardinal curiosity of the Census. It will surprise our readers to learn that this sect has churches in more than half our States, scattered in 219 counties. Three of them are not a hundred miles from the city of New York. Had Priestley lived a century later, they would have been prominent in his 'Corruptions of Christianity.' The Baptist tenet that immersion is an essential of baptism runs to seed in their requiring their members to wash the feet of the saints. Their "two seeds" are of death sown in Adam at the fall, and of life sown at regeneration. But many of them call themselves "Regular Predestinarians." Their vital point is the Calvinistic doctrine of decrees in a fatalistic caricature—"corruptio optimi pessima." Conversions are effected, as they maintain, by divine power unaided by preaching, and so ministers ought not to be paid. It is enough to say to them, Thank you for nothing. These Baptists are opposed to temperance, Bible, and missionary societies, as well as to theological seminaries, for they find them unmentioned in the Word of God. Yet, like every other sect, they "forsake not the assembling of themselves together," and their ministers "feed the flock, comfort Zion, and contend for the faith." Though their communicants are scarcely 10,000, their 333 churches have a seating capacity for more than ten times as many. Half their strength lies in Arkansas, Tennessee, and Texas, and there are seven of the twenty-three States in each of which they number less than one hundred. In Iowa there are 10 such witnesses and in New York 96. In Maine they number 170, but would have been much fewer there had their colony in Palestine endured, or, when that bubble burst, had not the maniacs whom the writer saw at Jaffa in 1868 been helped back to Maine by the charity of our Government.

—The first instalment of the General Report on the Eleventh Census of New South Wales, which has just been published, contains an interesting account of the origin of the census from the dawn of history. The first census of modern times is ascribed to the Canadian province of Quebec in 1665. Up to the year 1754 no less than fifteen regular censuses were taken by this province—nine of them in the seventeenth century—and in some, if not in all, of them every individual was recorded by name. Sweden showed during the seventeenth century a marked exception to the general European apathy towards this subject. Prior to 1686, special registers of births, marriages, and deaths were kept in certain districts of Sweden, but by a law of that year the practice was made obligatory upon the whole body of the clergy. In England, as early as 1753, a bill was introduced for taking and registering an annual account of the total number of the people, the number of marriages, births, and deaths, and also the number of paupers; but it was denounced as "totally subversive of the last remains of English liberty," as aiming at the imposition of new taxes, and as advertising the nation's weakness "to her enemies abroad." It was thrown out in the House of Lords. Nearly fifty years after this, Malthus published his essay on Population, which inspired Englishmen with such a dread of overpopulation and an exhaustion of the food supply that the fear of revealing the paucity of inhabitants was put aside. In 1800 and 1801 prices of wheat, barley, and oats in Great Britain were nearly double what they had been in previous years, and the introducer of the bill for taking the census said that, the subsistence of the people being in question, "it is surely important to know the extent of the demand which we are to supply." On this occasion the bill passed through all its stages without opposition, and on March 10, 1801, "the first enumeration of the inhabitants of England was made."

—In the current *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (January to April, 1893) one naturally looks first for news from Delphi. The results of the excavations so far have not been sifted so as to be presented formally in the main body of the reports, but it is encouraging to find that they begin with promise. The foundations of a small building of Pentelic marble have been laid bare, near the Sacred Way. The severe yet elegant style of the fragments of sculpture and architecture, the grace and skill of the workmanship, the names preserved in the inscriptions, all point to the conclusion that these are the relics of the Treasury of the Athenians. Thus a point of departure is fixed for the Delphic topography; moreover, the abundance of the remains and their fresh state of preservation (the color is still brilliant on some of the architectural members) show that the excavation is not misdirected, and give augury of ample reward for the large expenditure of money and labor involved. The initial difficulties which we Americans should have had to encounter, if our friendly competition had been successful, are briefly described by M. Homolle, Director of the French School of Archæology. They consisted first in the purchase of an entire village, in small lots, from 300 inhabitants; secondly, in the creation of a new village, for which land must be purchased and allotted, houses built, and water provided; and, lastly, in the construction of a line of railway for the transportation of the débris. The allowance from the French Government was 500,000 francs. Notwithstanding that the members of the French School were fully equipped for the undertaking in March, 1892, the work was forcibly delayed by unreasonable quarrels on the part of the population, and it was only by the zealous coöperation of the Greek Government, and by the aid of an armed body of Greek soldiers, that operations were finally begun about the first of November.

—We may console ourselves for our exclusion from such conflicts and such an opportunity, in reading the important paper, "On Certain Athenian Archons," which M. Homolle contributes to the present number of the *Bulletin*, and which, together with his previous work in restoring the history of Delos and of Rhodes from the inscriptions, proves—what the archæologist well knows—that the undertaking at Delphi has fallen into the hands of an expert and a master. M. Holleaux, in discussing, by the aid of recently discovered inscriptions, the relations of Rhodes with her possessions on the coast of Asia Minor, controverts the commonly accepted opinion of Droysen ('Geschichte des Hellenismus,' vol. iii.),

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that it was Ptolemy Philadelphus who took Caunus from the Rhodians in 266 B. C., and who afterwards restored it to them for the sum of 200 talents. This capture is shown by the Delian inventory of 279 to be an imagination of the historian; and, in all probability, Caunus was acquired by direct purchase from some general of Ptolemy Ephiphanes (possibly Ptolemy Philometor) as late as 189 B. C. This is the transaction alluded to by the Ambassador Astymedes, in the address reported by Polybius, before the Roman Senate, 164 B. C. The paper on Tegea, by M. Bérard, announces the identification of the site of the most important public edifices, including the theatre; and here we find incidental testimony to the great popularity of Euripides as late as the second century B. C. An actor of Tegea records four victories with different plays of Euripides, won in places so widely separated as Athens, Delphi, and Dodona.

—Turning from these studies of inscriptions to the essays that deal with ancient art, we may note the discussion by M. Chamonard of a unique rock monument at Sondurlu, a small station on the Aidin railway, near the bridge which crosses the Meander River. This bas-relief illustrates the varied influences which at the time of its construction, probably near the early part of the fifth century B. C., flowed together into Phrygia. It represents a personage borne on a chariot, preceded and followed by men on horseback, symbolizing doubtless the journey of the deceased to his final dwelling-place. The scene is the same as on the tombs of Xanthus, and presents a class of ideas borrowed from Phœnicia. It differs, however, from the neighboring Phrygian rock-monuments and from Hittite or Syro-Cappadocian workmanship in that its style is strikingly superior. The motive is Asiatic, but the art shows decided evidence of Greek genius and influence, imported by way of Lycia and Cyprus. M. Salomon Reinach, in an interesting piece of research, traces the fallen fortunes of the colossal statue of Apollo at Delos from the earliest mention to the present day. Plutarch tells, in his life of Nicias, of a huge palm-tree of bronze dedicated by the Athenian general to the deity; this tree, blown down by a tempest, fell upon the colossus and prostrated it, at exactly what date we are not informed. It was soon afterwards raised and repaired. About 1420 A. D., Bondelmonte records that, with a thousand men, he vainly tried to raise the statue to an upright position. After this period, each visitor seems to have helped himself freely to any fragment he liked to carry away. The sole remnants extant in 1892 are inventoried as follows by M. Sauer: A fragment of the base *in situ*, a piece of the chest and the hips near by, one hand preserved in the house of the curator, a piece of the plinth and of the left foot in the British Museum.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Founded mainly on the material collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray. Part VII. Consignificant—Crouching. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

HISTORICAL is the emphatic word in the title of this mighty thesaurus. On the side of etymology, tracing the form-development in chronological sequence; as regards the sense, exhibiting the successive growth of shades of meaning, under the influence of association or comparison or imagination, and again as connected with customs and institutions; and finally, in the matter of continuity, arranging, with dates and precise reference, examples of usage from the dawn of our Anglo-Saxon speech to the present time—such is the plan and the successful achievement of Dr. Murray and his colaborers. In the present instalment the offspring of the Latin *crux* furnishes the most striking example, perhaps, that this dictionary is likely to afford of the fate of words in their migrations, transformations, and functions. The roundabout Latin-Irish-Norse-North English *cross*, which has dominated all the other forms, occupies with its compounds and derivatives no fewer than twelve pages. The Latin prefix *contra* has given us through the French the useful *counter*, which has "become a living element of the language, capable of entering into new combinations even of Teutonic origin," but with a certain consciousness of hybridism. "In those compounds," we are told, "which we have taken from French or Italian, the consolidation of the word is usually greater than in those formed in English, and they are regularly written as single words. . . . In words formed in English the two elements are in looser union, both accentually and in writing," and the tendency is to employ the hyphen. In *contre-dance* (*contre-danse*, *contra-dance*) the pseudo-prefix is a corruption of *country:*

"The English country-dance was introduced into France during the Regency (1715-'23), and thence passed into Italy and Spain. . . . The arrangement of the partners in a country-dance, in two opposite lines of indefinite length, easily suggested the perversion of *country* into *contre-*, *contra-*, opposite. . . . But new dances of this type were subsequently brought out in France, and introduced into England with the Frenchified form of the name, which led some Englishmen to the erroneous notion that the French was the original and correct form, and the English a corruption of it. Thus, a writer in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1758, p. 174, said," etc.

The curious chain of error by which Mr. Tylor was led to affirm the existence of the *couvade* in Béarn was exposed by Dr. Murray with great particularity in the *Academy* last year. Mr. Tylor's *amour-propre* was obviously wounded by this procedure, but editors of dictionaries as well as of newspapers have the advantage of the last word, and hence we read (and so must the respected anthropologist himself, unless he practise upon page 1099 the smear of the Russian censor), "The recent application of the word in anthropology is due to Dr. E. B. Tylor, following M. Francisque Michel. . . . But this is a mistake, traceable to a statement as to the phrase *faire la couvade* in Rochefort's *Hist. Naturelle et Morale des Antilles* (1658), 494-5, repeated with variations by a sequence of later writers. . . . Further, the pretended existence of the practice in Béarn . . . appears to be merely the echo of a statement of Strabo as to the ancient Celtiberians," etc.

The discussion of *council*, its confusion with and differentiation from *counsel*, and the various applications of it to extant and defunct bodies, is a capital example of historical development; and along with this word may be mentioned *consistory*, *consociation*, *conventicle*, *convocation*, and *convention*. The extension of the last-named term has been vastly greater in the United States than in the mother country, as the verb *convene* is much more in vogue in Scotland and in the United States than in England; and accordingly we have a very full array drawn from our annals, *e. g.*, 1720, the Massachusetts Convention of Congregational Ministers; 1754, the Albany Convention of delegates from the colonies, for which Franklin drew up a Plan of Union; 1787, the Federal Convention; 1814, the Hartford Convention; and so forth down to 1891, November 13, "The great National Convention of the Women's Christian Temperance Union opened in Tremont Temple this morning" (Boston *Journal*). Such circumstantial particularity, by the way, as we have in the citation just made is frequent in our Dictionary. Thus, under *consort*, we read an extract from the *Court Circular* of December 13, 1861: "His Royal Highness the Prince Consort passed a restless night"—his last but one.

A bit of natural history attaches to *cony*, whose appearance in the language makes it certain that the rabbit was a late arrival in England as in northern Europe. There is no mention of it in Britain before the Norman period. The word still survives on its adopted soil along with the animal itself, and has a rich assortment of compounds, whereas it is wholly disused in the United States except in Scripture reading: not a single American citation is made for it by Dr. Murray. On the other hand, we have rescued *crotch* from its English dialectic obscurity and made an indispensable word of it. We have, too, a colloquial sense for *contrive*, which we do not find noticed, but which must have occurred more than once in the great body of New England tales. "I can't contrive how he did it"—*i. e.*, guess, imagine, divine. We identify this with Dr. Murray's No. 4, "to find out or discover (as the solution of a problem or riddle); to come to understand," which he makes obsolete, though his malicious epigram from Thynne (1600) compares very well with our usage—"Deepe witted menn b'experience haue contrived, that mariage good and quiet is ech hower, where the mans heringe organs are deprived of their right vse." *Corn-cake* seems a little belated in coming to the front with 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Gen. Butler's *contraband* is first quoted from W. H. Russell in the London *Times* of March 27, 1862, through default of some "reader" to furnish the original text of, or despatch concerning, Butler's whimsical ruling. The invention of *Copperhead* is assigned to the autumn of 1862, but the first instance given is from the New York *Tribune* of January 12, 1863—a date which should furnish a point of departure for further research.

It is odd to find Darwin the earliest authority for the substantive *constitutional*, 'a walk taken for health's sake' (1829); and Macaulay using *constituency* apologetically in 1831, Lady Holland thanking him and calling it "an odious word." *Cosmopolitan* in its literal sense as "not confined to any country" goes back to Mill in 1848, but in its figurative sense of "catholic" to Emerson in 1844. Robert Owen was the first to employ *coöperation* with a socialistic signification (1817). We owe to Sir William Hamilton (1836-'7) the convenient *conspectus*. The name of *corruptionist* is no older than 1810, of *contortionist* than 1859; and comparatively recent are *co-religionist* (1842), and the substantive *co-signatory* (1865). *Console* is but two hundred years old, dating from Dryden (1693). Hobbes first used *constantly* in the sense of "regularly" in 1651. *Cow*, 'to intimidate,' we must seek in Shakspere (1605), about which time also (1607) *cows* began to make head against the many other plurals of cow. America endowed England (1672) with the name of *cranberry* along with the delicious fruit itself; likewise (1879) with the name and invention of *creamery*. And if we did not devise either *cremation*, *crematory*, or *cremator*, an American author is first cited for

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cremate (1874). Guiteau (1881) was, for literary purposes, the original *crank*.

Among the curiosities of pronunciation revealed in this instalment is Cowper's doubly accented *con'venti'cle*. *Con'summate* (for the verb) is said to be getting the better of the accent on the penult, and the same process seems to be going on with the past participle. The usage is equally mixed in the case of *contemplate*, but the tendency at present is in favor of the antepenult, as in all verbs in *-ate*, we are told.

"Of these the antepenult stress is historical in all words in which the penult represents a short Latin syllable, as *accelerate*, etc., or one prosodically short-or-long, as in *celebrate*, etc.; regularly, also, when the penult has a vowel long in Latin, as *alienate*, etc. But where the penult has two or three consonants giving positional length, the stress has historically been on the penult, and its shift to the antepenult is recent or still in progress, as in *acervate*, etc.—all familiar with penult stress to middle-aged men. The influence of the noun of action in *-ation* is a factor in the change. . . . There being no *remonstration* in use, *remon'strate*, supported by *remon'strance*, keeps the earlier stress."

The effect of book-learning on pronunciation is illustrated in the history of the interesting *cony*, which formerly rhymed with *honey*, but has during the present century acquired the long *o*. In Dr. Murray's explanation: "This pronunciation is largely due to the obsolescence of the word in general use, while it occurred in the Bible, and especially in the Psalms, as the name of a foreign animal; . . . the oral tradition being broken, readers guessed at the [pronunciation of the] word from the spelling." *Crocodile* underwent a great variety of spellings and pronunciations in all the modern languages, but especially in English, where, as in most of the others, "the original form after Greek and Latin was restored . . . in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries." *Critique* was originally spelt *critick*, as by Pope in 1709. "*Critique* occurs in Addison's *Dial. Medals* (published in Works, 1721), and Pope so altered his spelling in 1729. It became general in the eighteenth century, though Johnson and most of the dictionaries to the end of the century adhered to *critick*. Todd substituted *critique* in his edition of Johnson in 1818; the modern pronunciation and stress after French (or German) appears in 1815." The evolution of *corpse* has been curious. In the fourteenth century the spelling of Old French *cors* was perverted after Latin to *corps*, and so made its way into English, with silent *p* till the end of the fifteenth century, and with the final *e* mute but seldom affixed till the present century. The parallel *corse* and *corps* were retained side by side with it, and the *e* mute now serves to distinguish it from the latter, which is still sounded as in French.

The citations have the usual range, from classic English to 'Fables from the New York *World*.' Among American authors, it is gratifying to meet so frequently with Emerson, whose pure intellectual delight in aptness of expression is well known. We have his famous saying, "A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds" (1841–'4), immediately succeeded by Sir H. Maine's "The doubtful virtue of consistency" (1864). So Disraeli's *mot* in his 'Lothair,' "You know who the Critics are? The men who have failed in Literature and Art," is paralleled by Swinburne's "The rancorous and reptile crew of poeticules who decompose into criticasters." There is an abundance of proverbs under *cooks*, with Garrick's "Heaven sends us good meat, but the Devil sends cooks." To be expected under their respective vocables, and to be found accordingly, are "God made the *country* and man made the town," "Some boundless *contiguity* of shade," "Thus Conscience does make *cowards* of us all," "*Convey* the wise it call," "*Consummation* devoutly to be wished," "For forms of government let fools *contest*." We miss, however, "What *constitutes* a State?" as well as Lowell's "Puts the debit to him, an' to us the *per contry*," and Wordsworth's ill-accented line that sets a trap for mispronunciation, "My head hath its *coronal*."

It remains to say a word about the progress of the Dictionary. The completed first volume (A, B) contains 1,240 pages; the second, of which the present is the fourth part, already fills 1,204, and is to embrace not only the rest of C, but the whole of D. Taking the Century Dictionary as a basis of computation, we reckon that volume ii. will be swelled to nearly 2,100 pages. For the sake of symmetry it seems a pity that D should not rather be bound up with E, of which Part ii. is in the press.

GEN. ANTHONY WAYNE.—I.

Major-General Anthony Wayne and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army. By Charles J. Stillé, President of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1893.

ANTHONY WAYNE was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, on the 1st of January, 1745. He early betrayed the military instinct which was hereditary in his family. His grandfather had fought with King William in the battle of the Boyne, his father was a captain in the Provincial service, and young Anthony, even in the schoolboy games of his childhood, delighted to show to his comrades how a squadron was set on the field and how redoubts were stormed. His education was slender, because he never took kindly to the study of the classics, but he attained to proficiency enough in the elements of mathematics to equip him for the tasks of a practical surveyor. He served his novitiate in that profession before he was twenty-one years old, having been sent in 1765 by Dr. Franklin and his associate capitalists of Philadelphia to survey two large tracts of land in Nova Scotia, which, after the peace of 1763, they hoped to open to settlement and colonization. When this scheme of colonization was abandoned in 1767, because of the threatening outlook of political affairs, arising from the disputes between the colonies and the mother country, young Wayne returned to Chester, and soon placed himself at the head of the county people in their remonstrances against the oppressive acts of the British Parliament. He was chairman of the Chester committee which adopted the resolutions of June 18, 1774 (not "July 13, 1774," as Dr. Stillé more than once has it), defining the attitude of the colonies in defence of their constitutional rights at that juncture. On the 20th of December, 1774, he was chairman of the Chester "Association," organized in pursuance of the recommendations of the Continental Congress. On the 20th of March, 1775, he appears to have participated in a meeting of the Chester Committee which directed a petition to be drafted and presented to the Pennsylvania Assembly "with regard to the manumission of slaves, especially relating to the freedom of infants hereafter born of black women in the colonies." We infer his presence and participation (though Dr. Stillé omits all mention of this meeting), because, in the report of its proceedings, we find that Wayne was made treasurer of funds collected for the relief of the suffering Bostonians at that date.

Henceforth he seems to have been the recognized leader of the Chester "Committee" and "Association" in all their deliberations, whether for the purpose of practice in the military art, the manufacture of gunpowder, the collection of arms, the trial of "suspects," or the punishment of regraters. In this troublous period he was appointed more than once a member of the Pennsylvania Committee of Safety, and in July, 1775, was a member of the Provincial Assembly. Yet during all this time he contemplated nothing more than a constitutional opposition to the "aggressions" of the British Crown, as "misled" by the Ministry; and joined in the declaration made by the Chester Committee on the 25th of September, 1775, indignantly denying the report, "industriously propagated" by "some persons evidently inimical to the liberties of America," to the effect that "the military associators of this county, in connection with the military associators in general, intend to overthrow the Constitution by declaring an independency"—a report which, the Committee adds, "could not originate but among the worst of men for the worst of purposes."

In so declaring, the patriots of Chester, with Wayne at their head, were in obvious sympathy at that time with the great mass of their Whig fellow-citizens outside of New England and Virginia. On the 9th of November, 1775, the Pennsylvania Assembly instructed its delegates in the Continental Congress "utterly to reject any propositions, should such be made, that may cause, or lead to, a separation from our mother country, or a change of the form of this Government." In affirmance of this injunction, the delegates from Pennsylvania were bidden to make report of their proceedings to the Assembly. This instruction, partly the cause and partly the consequence of the civic feud then prevailing in Pennsylvania (a feud destined to take still wider dimensions), was the source of woes unnumbered, because it precipitated a violent change in the form of the Pennsylvania Government, and ushered in the Declaration of Independence among Pennsylvanians at a crisis when they were not only "hissing in war," as the poet phrases it, but were also angered against each other with civic spites growing out of irreconcilable dissensions on a capital question in which each party honestly believed itself to be right. Embittered controversialists, writing under the pen-names of the "Pennsylvania Associator," the "Lover of Order," the "Independent Whig," the "Man of Candor," rushed into print and crossed swords in the newspapers of the day.

No pavilion from this strife of tongues could be found by the Pennsylvania soldiery even under their tents. For, during the winter of 1775–'76, Wayne had been organizing and drilling the awkward squad of his Chester battalion. The conservatism of his politics at this crisis did not keep him from arresting "suspects," trying regraters before the self-constituted justices of the Chester court of piepoudre, or making provision for the casting of heavy cannon, though Dr. Stillé, we believe, makes no mention of such activities on the part of his hero during the autumn of 1775. On the 3d of January, 1776, he was appointed by the Continental Congress Colonel of the fourth battalion of the Pennsylvania troops. On the 26th of April, 1776, we find him calling on Congress for arms, as his battalion, composed of friends and neighbors, was "under orders to

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march to Canada immediately." His military career had begun.

It has been said by one of Wayne's admirers, with a pardonable exaggeration, that his military biography is a history of the battles of the Revolutionary war. Wayne himself said at the close of the war that he had braved difficulty and danger "in defence of the rights and liberty of America from the frozen lakes of Canada to the burning sands of Florida." Early in the summer of 1776 he fought with the Pennsylvania troops in the battle of Three Rivers, some distance down the St. Lawrence, where, with the aid of Col. Allen, his companion in arms, he claimed to have saved the army in Canada. He commanded at Fort Ticonderoga, with its dependencies, from August, 1776, to the beginning of 1777, and endured there the horrors which made that fort a "Golgotha" and a "place of carnage" in his eyes, not because of losses in battle but from the destitution and pestilence which wasted his troops. On the 21st of February, 1777, he was appointed Brigadier-General, and in April of that year was ordered to join the army of Washington at Morristown. He participated on the 2d of May following in the affair at Brunswick. He fought bravely in the battle of Brandywine, and, a few days later, escaped from the "Massacre of Paoli" to take part in the confused battle of Germantown. He suffered, with the army, the terrors of the winter at Valley Forge. He bore the brunt of the battle of Monmouth. He planned and effected the brilliant capture of Stony Point on the 16th of July, 1779. He checked the revolt of the Pennsylvania line in 1781—baring his breast to the bayonets of his own soldiery. He led the charge at Green Spring which helped to drive Cornwallis under the Caudine Forks of Yorktown. He was present at the surrender, and then hastened to Georgia, where he compelled the evacuation of Savannah, to be followed soon by the reduction of Charleston.

And to these feats of arms in the Revolutionary war must be added the brilliant victory which he achieved over the Indian Confederacy at the battle of Fallen Timbers on the Miami Rapids on the 20th of August, 1794, by which he retrieved the disasters of Harmar and of St. Clair, and by which he opened the Northwestern territory above the Ohio River to the settlement of the whites. The "winning of the West," in a military sense, dates from this exploit, and from the Treaty of Greeneville to which it directly led in 1795.

Dr. Stillé thinks that the general impression with regard to Wayne is that he was simply a *beau sabreur*, "a sort of reckless dare-devil who could be relied upon, and was at all times called upon, to lead with unshrinking courage the most desperately dangerous operations." This impression has doubtless been deepened in the common mind by the sobriquet of "Mad Anthony," which, in the popular legend, has been immemorially attached to his name, and the impression has perhaps been confirmed by the comparative neglect under which he was left to labor and to wait through the whole war of the Revolution, without receiving the military recognition to which he would seem to have been entitled if the quality of his military talents had been deemed equal to the disinterestedness of his services, the constancy of his patriotism, and the undoubted impetuosity of his valor. Performing the actual duties of a Major-General from the time he joined the army of Washington till the end of the war, without receiving the honors of that titular rank; charged with all the responsibilities of that higher station without receiving its emoluments, and even superseded in his command by a General (St. Clair) whom he had good reasons for not esteeming, he swallowed his resentments, though reduced, for a season, from the command of a division to that of a brigade, and remained steadfastly in the forefront of the war, though sorely tempted, as he confessed at the time, "to return to domestic life and leave the blustering field of Mars to the possession of gentlemen of more worth." The untoward fortune which obscured his fame while living seems to have haunted his memory even in the grave, for though he died at last a full Major-General, and the General-in-Chief of the Army of the United States, we find that this splendid page in his annals, and with it the catalogue of subordinate officers in the army while it was under his command, has in some unaccountable way been omitted from Hamersly's 'Complete Regular Army Register.' The reader who shall turn to that publication in hope of finding in it the name and rank of the commissioned officers of the Federal Army while it was known as the "Legion of the United States," and while, as we have said, it was under the sole command of Wayne, will find nothing there but a *hiatus valde deflendus*. For the purposes of such an abbreviated quest the inquirer had better content himself with Gardner's 'Dictionary of the Army.'

FLORIO'S BETRAYAL OF MONTAIGNE.

Florio's Montaigne. With an Introduction by George Saintsbury. Vol. III. The Third Book. London: David Nutt. 1893.

To our previous notices of this edition only a few remarks need be added with reference to the final volume. Florio's translation of the 'Essays' is even more imperfect in this last book than elsewhere. Two causes may be assigned for this—one, that the difficulties of Montaigne's later style are much greater than those of his earlier pages (and these Essays were written many years after the former ones); and another, that a translation, like other things, if it does not improve in its course, almost always degenerates, from the consequences of haste and carelessness. There is abundant proof that Florio "scamped" his work towards the close in a manner that it is criminal neglect in any modern editor not to point out.

A few instances must serve to indicate many. In a passage the translation of which is on p. 260, Montaigne says: "La vérité a ses empeschements, incommoditez et incompatibilitez avec nous. Il nous faut souvent tromper afin que nous ne nous trompions, et siller nostre veuë, estourdir nostre entendement pour les redresser et amender." This "pensée" is of Montaigne's very latest coinage. It was first printed, like many others, in the posthumous edition of 1595; and, like many of the additions which then first appeared, it deserves the careful elucidation which its author did not give to it. The literal translation is this: "Truth has hindrances, unsuitablenesses, and incompatibilities for us. We must often deceive that we may not deceive ourselves, and close our eyes and dull our understandings in order to repair and amend them." Florio starts out with a sentence that has an excellent Elizabethan ring, and that is every way good if it were pointed out that "incomparabilities" is a misprint for "incompatibilities." In the next clause he as precisely as possible gives the opposite meaning from the true one, by the insertion of a "not." His eye was evidently caught by the "ne" of the original, and his mind, probably, by the remembrance of Montaigne's constantly expressed horror of lying. Florio's translation is: "Truth hath her lets, discommodities, and incomparabilities with us. Wee must not often deceive others lest we beguile ourselves. And seele our eyes and dull our understanding, thereby to repaire and amend them."

There is a more comic passage on p. 375. Montaigne, speaking of the length of human life, wrote: "Les hommes se font accroire qu'ils ont eu autres-fois, comme la stature, la vie aussi plus grande; mais ils se trompent, et Solon, qui est de ces vieux temps-là, en taille pourtant l'extreme durée à soixante et dix ans." That is: "Men fancy that formerly as their stature was higher, so was their life longer; but they are mistaken; and Solon, who is of those old days, nevertheless marks the limit of its extreme duration at seventy years." Florio has it: "Men perswade themselves that, as heretofore they have had a higher stature, so their lives were longer; But they are deceived: for Solon, of those ancient times, *though he were of an exceeding high stature* [!!], his life continued but seventy years [!]."

Many noble passages are deformed by Florio: *e. g.*, "Nous vivons et negotions avec le peuple: si sa conversation nous importune, si nous desdaignons à nous appliquer aux ames basses et vulgaires, et les basses et vulgaires sont souvent aussi sages que les plus desliées, . . . il ne nous faut plus entremettre ny de nos propres affaires ny de ceux d'autruy; et les publiques et les privez se demeslent avec ces gens là." Florio's translation (p. 38) is fairly good to "desliées." He then breaks the sentence and begins: "Wee are no longer to intermeddle either with our, or other mens affaires; and both publicke and private *forsake* such kinde of people." Again almost the precise opposite of Montaigne's thought. Further (page 393): "Nothing so humane in Plato, as that which they say, hee is called divine." "Rien si humain en Platon que ce pourquoy ils disent qu'on l'appelle divin." This is in one of the very interesting 1595 passages. Montaigne is maintaining that when men would transform themselves into angels, they do transform themselves into beasts: "au lieu de se hausser, ils s'abattent," and "there is nothing," he says, "so human [that is, so weak] in Plato as that for which they say he was called divine."

By the side of the mistakes of the translator there is in this volume as prolific a crop of the mistakes of Florio's printer as in the previous ones; and for the continuance of these the present editor must be called to task. A very confusing misprint, for ever handed down, is on p. 389: "As for me then, I love my selfe and cherish it," should be "I love my life and cherish it" (j'aime *la vie*). Rightly: "I love life and improve it, such as it has pleased God to bestow it on us." And Florio's following sentence is ludicrously unintelligible from his ignorance of a common idiom of that day. "Avoir à dire" meant (in English) *to lack*. We read in Florio: "As for me then, I love my selfe and cherish it, such as it hath pleased God to graunt it us. I desire not hee should speake of the necessity of eating and drinking." The original is: "Je ne vay pas desirant qu'elle eust à dire la necessité de boire et de manger"—that is, "I have no desire that it [life] should be without the necessity of eating and drinking."

Another strange mistake arising from an idiom has continued through all translations to the present day (it is still in Hazlitt's). This continuance is the stranger because Montaigne

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uses the idiom in a modern sense. Speaking of the letter that Tiberius, when old and sick, sent to the Senate, Montaigne, referring to the opinion of Tacitus that it expressed poignant remorse, says that he himself does not see this in it—"aumoins," he declares, "lors que j'estois à mesme, je ne le vis point"; that is, "when *I was qualified to judge.*" In his later years he often disclaims an accurate knowledge of Roman history or the Latin language; and this phrase is a little bit of half-sincere modesty. Florio translates it (and the other translators have the same sense, though not the same expression), "at least when my selfe was in the same plight, I saw it not" (p. 183). It is inexpressibly amusing to fancy Montaigne speaking of himself as in "the same plight" with Tiberius!

The sentences are innumerable that from one cause or another are not to be explained without reference to the original. (P. 57) "Plutarke himself bewails his daughter by the fopperies of his childehood." "Plutarque mesme regrette sa fille par des singeries de son enfance," *i. e.*, the little drolleries of her babyhood. (P. 115) "And if constancy be . . . more pardonable in them than in us . . ." should be "inconstancy." (P. 48) "My thoughts are prone to sleep if I sit long. My mind goes not alone as if ledges did moove it." Florio wrote "legges." "Mon esprit ne va pas seul, comme si les jambes l'agitent." More examples are unnecessary.

It would be a kindness in the editor of Florio, if it be not his duty, to give the reader a glossary. It is only from special knowledge that one can understand such words and phrases as the following, which catch the eye in turning the pages: "Caters" (catarrhs), "sance" (French *sans*), "were corrupted in my loss" (*tenoient en compte en ma perte*); "by retayle it spoiles and proules me" (*par le menu, elle me pille*), "flearing," "mumps," "trudding," "sottish" (=foolish), "Kae mee Ile kae thee," "vie" and "a vie," or "avy" (two entirely different words), "A becke is as good as a dew guard" (*Dieu vous garde*), "calivers," "pavesado," "galliotte," "estriges" (ostriches) "evitated" (avoided), "moultred" (mouldered), "climate" (in the sense of *region*), "to konne you no thanks," "attediate" (weary), "demisse" (over humble), "runne at hab or nab," "netifie" (make neat), "imperverseth," "lithernesse," "agnize" (recognize), "smugging," "to take pepper (or take snuff) in the nose" (to be angry), "bemolted" (b *mol*), "good cheap" and "better cheap," "calthrops," "wallowishly tastelesse," "My manners are musty, rather wallowish than sharp," "whit meates," "calipine," "casting-counters," "Argo-lettiers" (*argoulets*), "cost-castle" (a game), "murre" (a hoarse cold), "to nonchion," "pargettings," "mumme-chance" (a game with cards or dice), "podagrees," "to make the pommada" (walk on the hands, *paume*), "sextaine" (sacristan), "summers" (supporting beams), "wherrat" or "whirrit" (a box on the ears), "wrimpled," etc., etc., etc.—to say nothing of all the words like "preallable," "bransles," "bouge," "deffaillance," "perflable," simply left *untranslated.*

Memoirs of My Indian Career. By Sir George Campbell, M.P., K.C.S.I., D.C.L. Edited by Sir Charles E. Bernard. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

It is not very often that we come across a Radical Indian official—at any rate, in the sense in which the term "Radical" is now used in England. Sir George Campbell was a Radical of the best type; a man whose sympathies were with the masses of the Indian people, and who did not hesitate to defend their interests even at the risk of "spoiling his career." His policy of "governing more actively" had its dangers; but these were minimized by his shrewd Scotch common sense, his intimate knowledge of the details of the husbandman's life, and his passion for facts. When at last he was put in a position, as Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal (1871-1874), in which he could set his mark upon the country, he not only dealt successfully with a great famine, but did much to permanently improve the condition of the great body of the agricultural population. And these 'Memoirs' of his, written in the last two years of his life, are an exceedingly rich source of information concerning Indian problems, and especially concerning the undercurrents of official opinion.

The question of questions in India is the land. Every one who has read Sir Henry Maine knows that the English Government, having to decide, at the end of last century, whom it should make responsible for the payment of the Bengal revenue, chose to deal with the zemindars, or tax-gatherers, and so converted them practically into landlords. Every one knows also that in some other provinces in later times another and wiser policy was adopted, and a settlement made directly with the cultivators, or ryots. Throughout Campbell was on the side of the ryots. He protested in vain, when he was but a subordinate administrative official in Oude, against the "Settlement" of that country in 1860, whereby "alone, of all the provinces of India, the landlords obtained absolute and unqualified property in the soil, and the cultivators were left without any rights at all—with very insignificant exception." The idea that the Mutiny had been in any way due to a previous ill treatment of the "landlords" (or "talookdars," as they were called in that district) he scouted as preposterous: the Mutiny, he declared, had been, what its name implies, a military mutiny, and nothing more. But "the craze for creating landlords in India" was then at its height, and Campbell was got rid of from that branch of the service by being made a judge of the High Court at Calcutta. As good fortune would have it, this gave him a chance of taking part, and doubtless an influential part, in the deliberations on the Great Rent Case, which resulted in the reversal by the whole body of fourteen lower judges of a judgment of their chief, and the final judicial "establishment of the rights of the occupancy ryots of Bengal as privileged tenants holding at a regulated rent." And when, after wandering in the wilderness for some years, he became Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, he succeeded, in the teeth of many obstacles, in compelling the zemindars of that province to perform some part of those duties in consideration of which they had received their privileges.

It is curious to notice the parallelism—which Campbell was one of the first to perceive—between recent Indian and Irish agrarian history. The period of "enthusiasm for landlordism" after the Mutiny was exactly contemporary with the Irish Land Act of 1860, which attempted to replace custom altogether by contract; and the Irish Acts of 1881 and subsequent years are quite similar in principle to the reforms which administrators sympathizing with Campbell have of late effected in India. Nowhere is the liability of the political economy of the Manchester school to serve as a justification for the oppression of the weak by the strong more apparent than in India. This comes out very clearly in a report from Mr. Wingfield, by whom more than any other man the Settlement of Oude was shaped:

"The claim," he wrote in 1864, "of any interest to protection in its industry has been repudiated in England, but in India it is accorded to the lowest form of agricultural interest. This course of policy the Chief Commissioner believes to be opposed to modern principles. The doctrine that it is the duty of the State to interfere to prevent the owner of the soil from doing what he pleased with it is one that Englishmen will not subscribe to in their own country. Every attempt to legalize it under the guise of tenant-right in Ireland has been defeated in Parliament; and the idea of limiting the power of the landlord has been denounced as communistic by an eminent living statesman."

Need it be pointed out how large an assumption it was to regard the talookdar as "the owner of the soil"? It is amusing to find that the Duke of Argyll, the Liberal Secretary of State for India in 1871, was distressed by the zeal of Campbell on behalf of the Bengal tenants. He doubtless saw in every Bengal zemindar an inchoate McCallum More. It is to be feared that he may in future be still further distressed by the application of Indian precedents to Scotch crofters.

Geology of the Eureka District, Nevada. With an Atlas. By Arnold Hague. [United States Geological Survey, Monograph XX.] Washington. 1892.

The Eureka district in Nevada has been one of the great lead-silver-producing regions of the United States, and the Richmond and the Eureka Consolidated mines are known to fame. The economical importance of the district has already given rise to one monograph, by Mr. J. S. Curtis, on its mining geology. The scientific interest of the region, however, is by no means confined to its mineral resources, and this fact is no accident. The ore deposits could not occur here were there not lines of weakness in the earth, along which lavas and hot mineralized solutions could penetrate. The fissuring of the rocks was due to dislocating forces, and implies the upheaval of one side of the country relatively to the other. Now the great geological distinctions between areas, as well as the fissuring which is essential to the deposition of ores, are chiefly due to such upheavals. Hence it is no matter of surprise to find that Eureka lies close to a narrow belt along which one of the most important upheavals of the continent has taken place, and near the dividing line between very distinct geological areas.

This line or narrow zone of upheaval was detected by the geologists of the exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, but was not then studied with all the detail desirable; and it was principally for this reason that Mr. Hague's geological investigation was undertaken. One of its fruits was a superb collection of palæozoic fossils, which were described and discussed some time since by Mr. C. D. Walcott. The most interesting feature of Mr. Hague's memoir is the abundant confirmation of the offshore character of the palæozoic rocks. These show beyond a peradventure that, from the Cambrian to the close of the Carboniferous period, a continental area existed to the west of longitude 117° 30', furnishing great masses of sediment to a sea stretching far to the eastward of this meridian. This sea bore an inland character in spite of its great extent. Though the western continental area seems to have remained above water during the entire palæozoic period, minor oscillations of level took place, as is usual under such conditions. Thus

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the waters at Eureka were sometimes deep enough to deposit limestones, and again shallow enough to be marked by coarse conglomerates and sands. Portions of the area even rose high enough to afford space for estuarian swamps, so that coal seams (of no economic value) and fresh-water life mark some horizons. By these observations the existence of the shore line and of the western land mass is definitely established. It is possible that dislocations had occurred along the meridian 117° 30′ before the Cambrian. It is certain that at the close of the Carboniferous the inland sea in eastern Nevada was obliterated by the elevation of its bottom, this upheaval being accompanied by a lateral compressive stress which produced meridional folds near Eureka. In many cases these folds broke as crumpled pasteboard would do, and faults now mark their axes. Mr. Hague's investigations lend no support to the theory of the formation of mountain ranges by the tilting of rigid blocks of rock in an underlying fluid magma—a strange hypothesis which has had several advocates so far as the mountains of southern Nevada are concerned.

Deep wounds in the earth seem never to heal thoroughly, and along these same faults intrusive and eruptive rocks have penetrated at various ages up to the late Tertiary. The eruptive rocks of Eureka are many and interesting, and are described in detail in this volume by Mr. J. P. Iddings. Mr. Hague regards the entire series of volcanic rocks (which do not exactly follow Von Richthofen's famous law of succession) as derivable from a single, homogeneous, molten magma by a process of chemical differentiation. It is satisfactory, by the way, to observe that chemical considerations, which were almost ignored in lithology a few years since, are regaining the attention which never should have been refused them. The hypothesis of differentiation into fractional magmas still lacks precision, but it is a much more hopeful line of thought than the reference, so lately in vogue, of all differences in rocks to differences of temperature and pressure. The idea is that rocks of intermediate composition, representing the original magma, will be ejected first, while the residual subterranean pool will gradually separate into acid and basic portions. These will be emitted at later outbreaks. Bunsen's theory of pyroxenic and trachytic magmas forms the starting-point for all theories of the differentiation of magmas.

The atlas of this monograph is beautifully executed by Bien, and the photographs of microscopic slides, by Bierstadt, are very fine. The proof correction has been careful. The printing-paper is bad, and a discredit to the Government Printing-office.

Art Out of Doors. By Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Before attempting to note the conspicuous merits and deficiencies of this charmingly made book, it may be well to sketch the outlines of that exceedingly broad field of human labor in which Mrs. Van Rensselaer would have us work "artistically." Ever since man became man he has been remodelling the face of the earth. His blind trails through the forests have become highways and railroads. His wigwams and pueblos are now farmsteads and great cities. The prairies are become his grain-fields and the forests his lumber-yards. Purely natural scenery is already a distant rarity, what is called such being generally the distinctly humanized landscape of coppice, pasture, and farm. That all this labor of men is vandalism is the cry of sentimentalists, but men of sense remain of the opinion that the world would be a dull place without its fields and roads, its cottages and mansions, its villages and cities, its rails of shining steel, and all its other grand, lovely, or pathetic evidences of man's toiling and aspiring life. The transformers of the earth have seldom aimed to produce beauty, yet beauty has time and again sprung up under their hands—witness the English churchyard, the Swedish farmstead, the New England pasture or village. There is no mystery about this. Human happiness is not won by giving one's thoughts to the direct pursuit of it; neither is beauty in the surroundings of life. Although man is conscious and Nature is unconscious, the man who hopes for beauty must work as Nature works, and must trustfully obey her laws of purpose, utility, and adaptation to circumstance. Beauty is not to be won as an immediate aim. It is a result, a development, a flower.

It is to be regretted that no general account of either the breadth or the depth of the subject described by its title is to be found in the book before us. Its various chapters deal lightly and pleasantly with such special problems as the grouping of trees and shrubs, the attachment of houses to their sites, roads and paths, formal gardens, piazzas, and so on; the plea of the book being that all such problems should be solved in an "artistic spirit." The advice offered is well put, and the book should have a multitude of readers. Our only fear is lest the author has inadequately warned these readers of the main facts, that good "art out of doors" must be founded in rationality, purpose, fitness, and that its field is not only the garden, the shrubbery, and the park, but also the village, the factory, and the railroad yard. According to this book, landscape architecture is much like house-furnishing: a selecting of agreeably harmonizing elements in the shape of buildings, rocks, trees, climbing-plants, and so on. The essentially virile and practical nature of the art and profession is ignored, together with most of its greater and more democratic problems. But when this has been said and allowance made, the book remains the best book in its field that we have had in many a day. Its style is exceedingly good, and its tone puts it above comparison with the books of the horticulturists which are its only contemporary rivals for the public ear.

The Treat Family: A Genealogy of Trott, Tratt, and Treat for fifteen generations and four hundred and fifty years in England and America. Containing more than fifteen hundred families in America. By John Harvey Treat, A.M. Salem, Mass.: Press Publishing Company. 1893. Pp. 637.

This is one of those immense genealogies for which no rival can be found except among American publications. It is a wonderful monument of care, patience, enthusiasm, and wealth, and the author is entitled to a high rank in his art. Richard Treat, the immigrant, settled in Connecticut prior to 1640, as he was of Wethersfield in that year when he bought the farms of John Whitmore, Thurston Raynor, and Matthew Mitchel, who removed to Stamford. His will, dated in 1668, mentions children Honor, Richard, Robert, and James, besides married daughters clearly identified as Joanna and Sarah. As all of these children are recorded as born to Richard Tratt at Pitminster, County Somerset, Eng., between 1615 and 1634, there is not the slightest doubt that the emigrant has been identified. Four generations have been satisfactorily traced in England, under the names of Trott and Tratt, beginning with John Trott of Staplegrove, near Taunton, in 1458. Probably Matthias Treat of Wethersfield was of the same stock; and his descendants are herein traced (pp. 534–566). The three sons of Richard are taken as founders of separate families, and their issue herein recorded, viz.: of Richard, pp. 35–129; of Robert, pp. 130–484, and of James, pp. 488–533. The most noted bearer of the name was this Robert, who was "Governor and Deputy-Governor" of Connecticut for nearly thirty years, as his tombstone still testifies. His granddaughter Eunice Treat married the Rev. Thomas Paine of Eastham and Boston, and their son Robert Treat Paine had the honor of signing the Declaration of Independence.

As compared with some other New England families, the Treats have not been very prolific in the male line, but the roll of Richard's descendants is an honorable one, and is now fittingly recorded for posterity.

Victor Hugo, le Poète. Par Charles Renouvier. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

The articles published, four years ago, by M. Charles Renouvier in *La Critique Philosophique* have been collected and revised by him in book form, under the above title, with much new matter. The result is a useful addition to the small list of good books on Hugo. On first opening it one feels a not unnatural dread lest the volume prove to be another fulsome laudation of the poet, for it is mainly laudation or abuse, exaggerated in either case, to which we have been treated by writers taking the great lyrist as their theme. M. Renouvier starts out with the affirmation that Victor Hugo is the only Frenchman actually and absolutely entitled to the name of poet in the fullest meaning of the word. This is a pretty bold challenge of itself, and, followed up as it is by the assertion that Hugo may further be considered as one of the few world-poets, it is not surprising that the reader should feel instinctive distrust of what at first glance threatens to be a panegyric of the wildest kind. But M. Renouvier, notwithstanding his intense admiration of the poet and the fact that he starts out to prove what will seem to many utterly untenable, has not shut his eyes to the faults of Hugo as a writer. He bases his judgment of the poet on the assumed possession by Hugo of three gifts—the first, the mythological faculty, the second, sublimity, and the third, style. That is, to summarize M. Renouvier's remarks, Hugo probably excels every poet in the power and love of incarnating ideas and things; he has vast force and depth of emotion, and is practically the creator of a new prosody.

These are very wide-reaching claims, and a careful perusal of the evidence in support of them leaves us unconvinced. No one, save bitter opponents, denies to Hugo as a poet a place among the foremost in the nineteenth century; but to rank him with Homer, Virgil, Dante, Shakspere, Milton, Goethe, is an act of blind admiration. One can name the *magnum opus* of each of these rare intellects; what is Hugo's in the mass of verse he has written? Which particular poem, play, or collection of poems of his is to be mentioned with the masterpiece which each of the above names recalls? If there be a French poet admissible to the glorious distinction of a world-poet, most people will say it is Molière. M. Renouvier does not succeed in prov[illegible]

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foremost of all French poets, but he comes much nearer his goal in this than in the other case.

Apart from these two contentions, which give considerable interest to M. Renouvier's pages, the study he has made of the poet is a remarkably impartial one, recalling frequently, in its evident sincerity, the masterly *étude* by Faguet. The latter is still the preferable one; M. Renouvier has not surpassed M. Faguet in depth or clearness of insight, and has not placed more effectively before the reader the peculiar beauties and equally peculiar defects of Hugo. On the other hand, he is fuller, he views the poet from a somewhat different standpoint, he places him higher than Faguet does, and accepts as beauties and powers what the other critic at times indicates as weaknesses and defects. In a word, he supplements Faguet where the two agree, and brings out new light where they disagree. His book is one which every careful student of Hugo and the Romantic movement in France will feel it necessary to read and will be repaid for reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E., and Arnold, Thomas. A Catholic Dictionary. New ed., revised and enlarged. Benziger Bros.

Bushill, T. W. Profit-Sharing and the Labor Question. London: Methuen & Co.

Cannan, Edwin. A History of the Theories of Production and Distribution in English Political Economy from 1776 to 1848. London: Percival & Co.

Cheever, Rev. H. T. Biblical Eschatology. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Cherbuliez, Victor. The Tutor's Secret. Appletons.

Comic History of America. M. J. Ivers & Co.

Coppée, François. Rivales. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer. 60 cents.

Daintrey, Laura. Gold. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Flinn, J. J. Standard Guide to Chicago. Chicago: Standard Guide Co.

Foote, Allen R. Prosperity and Politics. Washington: Kensington Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Gage, Matilda J. Woman, Church and State. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $2.

Grand, Madame Sarah. The Heavenly Twins. Cassell. $1.

Hampton, Isabel A. Nursing: Its Principles and Practice. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $2.

Hill, Thomas E. Guide to Chicago and the World's Fair. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.

How to Get There in New York City. Hall Publishing Co. 15 cents.

Jones, D. A. Business Corporations Law in the State of New York. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.

Langbridge, Frederick. Miss Honoria: A Tale of a Remote Corner of Ireland. F. Warne & Co. 50 cents.

Lee, Susan P. Memoirs of William Nelson Pendleton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Lent, F. T. Sound Sense in Suburban Architecture. Cranford, N. J.: The Author.

Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Guy Tresillian's Fate. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.

Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Tresillian Court. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.

Lindley, Percy. Walks in the Ardennes. New ed. London: Great Eastern R.R. Co.

Linn, Dr. Thomas. The Health Resorts of Europe. Appletons. $1.50.

McFadden, B. A. The Athlete's Conquest. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Merkley, George E. Canadian Melodies and Poems. Toronto: Hart & Riddell.

Moore-Carew, S. A Conquered Self. F. Warne & Co. 75 cents.

Oxley, J. M. Archie of Athabasca. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.

Protestant Episcopal Hymnal. Revised and Enlarged. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.

Roosevelt, Theodore. The Wilderness Hunter. Putnams. $3.50.

Ryley, G. B., and McCandlish, J. M. Scotland's Free Church. London: Constable & Co.; New York: Randolph. $2.50.

Scott, Sir Walter. Old Mortality. 2 vols. Heart of Midlothian. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.

Starr, Rev. R. H. A Lost Truth, and Other Short Sermons. James Pott & Co.

Sturgis, Julian. Count Julian: A Spanish Tragedy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.

Sybel, H. von. Die Erhebung Europas gegen Napoleon I. Boston: Ginn & Co. 66 cents.

The Defence of Prof. Briggs before the General Assembly. Scribners. 75 cents.

The Essays of Montaigne done into English by John Florio. The Third Book. London: David Nutt.

The Story of a Telegraph Operator. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.

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